

Newcastle Training College makes each year to Keswick, Ambleside and other places; in the "School Walk" a further College experiment is described. "The Fulwell method of Teaching Reading" is by a late student; it is a method that has special characteristics.

Among the other articles is a scholarly account of "De Arte Supputandi," a sixteenth century arithmetic by Bishop Tonstall. A copy of the title page of this book is reproduced and is interesting, seeing that the edition described was printed at Strasburg, and contains a commendatory notice by Sturm. "Cuthbert Tonstall has written a book on arithmetic that is clear and pure above and beyond all others: and he has so treated the subject, that, so long as this author is extant, the art of arithmetic stands in no great need of any exponent. I do not deny that there are things to be learned from others also, but this writer expounds in a learned and clear Latin style, which is not the case with all writers, and he who understands Tonstall's precepts will not be far from perfection." The "Papers" are an indication of activity. There must be a large amount of valuable information upon subjects relating to education in the Training Colleges of the country, and it is desirable that such information should be available in a printed form.

Training College Record.

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The English Grammar Schools to 1660—*Foster Watson*; Principles of Logic—*Joyce*; The Teaching of English—*Wyld*; The Sounds of English—*Sweet*; The Sounds of the French Language—*Passy*; Phonetic Transcriptions of English Prose—*Jones*; The Writing of English—*Hartog*; The Teaching of Reading—*Wyld*; A Cycle of Nature Study—*Penstone*; A Plant Book for Schools—*Darbishire*; Physical Education and Hygiene—*Welpton*; School Hygiene—*Porter*; Manual of School Hygiene—*Hope and Browne*; Pestalozzi—*Holman*; The Kindergarten in American Education—*Vandewalker*; Armstrong College, *Education Papers*; Practical Arithmetic—*Knowles and Howard*.

INTRODUCTION.

The Training College Association at the Annual Meeting determined that the "Record" should continue, the next number will be issued in the Autumn.

The value of the "Record" will depend upon the activity of the members, and the Editor will be glad to receive proposals for Papers. There must be in the experience of Training Colleges information and conclusions that are of value to those engaged in the Training of Teachers. The papers of Professor Green upon "Experiment in Education" open out a wide field, and contributions adding to the information he has provided, and giving the results of experiments to test the validity of the views advanced would be appreciated by all workers.

The Editor hopes that he will be able to publish in the Autumn number some new contributions towards "Experimental Psychology," with pedagogical import, by well-known investigators in England. Professor Green has referred to Professor Meumann's work in this direction.

The Editor expresses his thanks to the writers of Papers and Reviews.

M.R.W.

ARMSTRONG COLLEGE,
NEWCASTLE-UPON-TYNE,
February, 1909.

Training College Association.

President—

REV. R. HUDSON, St. Mark's College, Chelsea, S.W.

Ex-President—

PROFESSOR MARK R. WRIGHT, Armstrong College,
Newcastle-upon-Tyne.

Vice-Presidents—

MISS BISHOP, St. Gabriel's Training College,
Kennington, S.E.

MR. DAVID SALMON, Swansea Training College.

Honorary Secretary and Treasurer—

MR. H. E. GRIFFITHS, St. John's College,
Battersea, S.W.

THE ANNUAL MEETING.

THE SEVENTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING was held at the Caxton Hall, Westminster, S.W., on Friday, December 18th, 1908.

MORNING SESSION—10 A.M.

1. The proceedings were opened by the Chairman, Professor Mark R. Wright, who called on the Secretary to read the Minutes of the previous meeting. The Minutes were confirmed.

2. Rev. E. Hammonds moved, and Miss Birch seconded, the adoption of the Annual Report. The motion was carried unanimously. Miss Hale moved the adoption of the Balance Sheet, which was seconded by Miss Bishop, and carried.

3. Miss Smith and the Rev. S. Blofeld were appointed scrutineers for the voting papers for the election of Vice-Presidents.

4. *Training College Record*.—The adoption of the Balance Sheet was moved by Professor Wright. This was seconded by the Rev. R. Hudson, and was carried. It was proposed by Rev. E. Hammonds, and seconded by Miss Hale, that the *Record* be continued. Carried. Rev. E. Hammonds moved for the appointment of an Editorial Committee for the *Record*. The proposition was not seconded and, after discussion, was withdrawn. It was agreed that Professor Wright be requested to edit the *Record* for the year in consultation with the President.

5. The result of the voting was now announced. Miss Bishop and Mr. Salmon were elected as Vice-Presidents. Mr. Griffiths was again elected as Hon. Secretary and Treasurer.

6. A vote of thanks to Professor Wright as President for the past year, also to Mr. Griffiths as Secretary, was proposed by Miss Bishop and seconded by Mr. Gettins. Carried.

7. The new President (Rev. R. Hudson) then took the chair and read his address. It was proposed by Prebendary Hobson and seconded by Miss Manley that the President be thanked for his address, and that it be printed and circulated. Carried (see p. 15).

8. A paper on "Reading Aloud" was read by Principal Burrell (see p. 33). Professor Wyld of Liverpool University also addressed the meeting on the same subject (see p. 38). The discussion is reported on p. 50. Papers on "Literary Expression in English Composition" were read by Miss Stephenson (see p. 52) and Mr. Reed (see p. 57). The discussion is reported on p. 61.

9. Principal Spafford moved:—"That the attention of the Board of Education be called to the fact that

a large number of the students in Training Colleges who completed their training in July last are still without appointments, and that in the prospect of a further large increase in the number of Training Colleges by the Education Authorities, this condition is likely to be considerably intensified unless the Board of Education or the Education Authorities devise means to secure a larger proportion of trained teachers in the schools; and that the Board of Education be asked to receive a deputation on the subject." The motion was seconded by Professor Wright and was carried. It was referred to the Committee with instructions to act.

AFTERNOON SESSION—2 P.M.

Dr. Airey and Mr. Vesey, H.M. Inspectors, were present.

10. The resolutions already passed by the Association in favour of the earlier issue of the Training College Regulations and the results of the Examinations for the Preliminary Certificate were re-affirmed on the motion of the Rev. H. Wesley Dennis, and seconded by Mr. D. Salmon.

11. Lieutenant Grenfell then opened a discussion on "Physical Training in the Colleges," reading a paper on the same (see p. 70). A discussion followed. A vote of thanks to Lieutenant Grenfell was moved by the Rev. H. Wesley Dennis, seconded by Miss Manley and supported by Principal Burrell and Mr. Gettins. The vote was carried unanimously.

12. Rev. E. Hammonds moved, and Rev. J. D. Best seconded:—(a) "That the Training College Association should be represented on the new Teachers' Registration Council, and that application be made for such representation." (b) "That service on the staff of a Training College be recognised as a qualification for a place on the Register." Principal Loring and Miss Manley both took part in the discussion. The resolutions were carried with the following alteration in (b):

"That service on the staff of a Training College be recognised as one of the qualifications for a place on the Register." Rev. E. Hammonds' address is given on p. 66.

13. The Rev. Canon Morley Stephenson (in the absence of the Rev. H. Wesley Dennis) moved the following resolution:—"That this Association regards the lowering of the age of eligibility for admission to Training Colleges as inadvisable, and expresses its opinion that the admission of such candidates, without some proof of teaching power and ability based on practical experience, tends to lower the standard of professional efficiency, and will inflict serious hardship on those who at the end of their course prove unfitted for the office of teacher." The motion was seconded by Miss Manley, and carried *nem. con.*

14. Rev. J. D. Best moved the resolution in Miss Forth's name, namely—"That the service of Certificated Teachers in Training Colleges continue to be regarded as 'recorded service' for the purposes of superannuation." Miss Birch seconded the resolution, while Dr. Workman opposed it. The motion was carried.

15. *Sectional Meetings.*—The report of the Sectional Meetings on "Practising Schools" (p. 28), "Correlation of Mathematics, etc." (p. 29), "Records of Practice" (p. 31), and "Music" (p. 31) were received.

The Reports were accepted and were referred to the Committee. The Principals of Whitelands and Westminster Colleges were cordially thanked for allowing the Sectional Meetings to be held at their Colleges.

16. A letter from the British Science Guild was read by Mr. Griffiths as to the Training College Association co-operating with the Guild in bringing the matters under consideration (in their Reports enclosed) before the proper authorities. This was referred to Committee.

* 17. It was agreed that all resolutions of the Annual Meeting be referred to the Committee, and that the Committee be empowered to act.

18. A hearty vote of thanks was accorded to the President for his conduct of the meeting.

REPORT FOR THE YEAR 1908.

To the Members of the Association.

Your Committee has pleasure in submitting the following Report for the past year:—

The Association numbers 291 members, and 67 Colleges (Residential and Day) are represented. It is worthy of notice that this is an increase of 51 members and of 6 Colleges during the year.

The Annual Meeting was held on December 17th, 1907, at the National Society's House, Westminster. There were two sessions, and the attendance at both was good.

The Committee has met twice during the year (in March and October), and one Sub-Committee Meeting has been held.

A copy of the following resolutions (passed at the last Annual Meeting) was sent early in the year to every educational authority in England and Wales:—

1. "That no student should be received into a Training College directly on the conclusion of his 'Bursary' period, without having had some substantial experience (say not less than three months) in the regular work of a Public Elementary School, under the direction of the Head Teacher and staff."

2. "This Association is of opinion that it is necessary, in the interests of efficiency, that students, before admission to a Training College, should have acquired facility in the following exercises:—(1) Clear Articulation. (2) Vocal music. (3) Manual instruction, and (for women) needlework."

The Association believes that the necessary training should be given during the school period, when habits are readily formed, and that the function of the training College is to train students in the application of these exercises in school.

The Association feels that this resolution becomes strikingly urgent having regard to the "Bursar" System.

The response was very gratifying, practically all expressing themselves in entire agreement with the resolutions. A further resolution on the same subject will be brought forward at the Annual Meeting.

The "Training College Record" was published in March under the direction of Professor Mark R. Wright, the retiring President. At the March Committee Meeting it was decided to continue the publication for 1909 on the same lines as the first number. The question will again be brought up at the Annual Meeting, when the Report and Balance Sheet of the publication for 1908 will be presented.

The question of the Educational Congress (proposed by the Teachers' Guild), and referred to the Committee from the Annual Meeting, was brought forward at the March Committee Meeting, and it was then announced that the idea had fallen through.

Circular 563 (Elementary School Teachers' Superannuation Act) has been discussed in Committee at some length, and it was decided to put it on the Agenda for discussion at the Annual Meeting.

The difficulty of finding posts for the students who left the Colleges in July last has caused a good deal of anxiety. The subject was considered at the October Committee Meeting, and it was then decided to get accurate returns from the Colleges. This has been done, and the question of taking any action upon these figures will rest with the Association at the Annual Meeting.

The subject of "Registration" is felt to be an important one for the Association, and therefore finds a place on the Agenda of the Annual Meeting.

The Association was represented at the International Moral Education Congress in September, by Principal Burrell and the Secretary, and the Rev. R. Hudson (President-Elect for 1909), represents the Association on the Committee of the National League for Physical Education and Improvement.

It will be noticed that for the first time, Sectional Meetings have been arranged this year in connection with the Annual Meeting. The need for some such arrangement has been felt for many years, and it is hoped that the experiment will prove successful.

In accordance with Rule 5, the Rev. R. Hudson was at the March Meeting elected President for 1909.

At the October Meeting nominations were received for the posts of Vice-Presidents and Hon. Secretary. Voting Papers have been issued (in the case of the Vice-Presidents), and the result will be declared at the Annual Meeting.

In conclusion, the Committee cordially thank the members of the Association for their continued co-operation and support.

Signed, on behalf of the Committee,

H. E. GRIFFITHS,
Hon. Secretary.

BALANCE SHEET, 1908.

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Subscriptions—				Deficit, 1907	2 13 9
247 at 2s. 6d.	...	30	17 6	Annual Meeting—	
	Hire of Hall	£3	3 0	
	Tea	2	10 0	
	Sundries	1	0 0	
				6 13 0
	Subscription—Moral Education			
	Congress, 1908	1 1 0
	Printing	12 9 6
	Postage and Office Expenses	8 6 6
Deficit	0 6 3				£31 3 9
			£31 3 9				

Audited and found correct,
(Signed)

E. C. SIMPSON.

December, 1908.

LIST OF MEMBERS.

The names are in Alphabetical Order in each College.

Avery Hill, Eitham (Training

College):

Miss Aldham.
" Carter.
" Coleman.
" Cumberbirch.
" Ellaby.
" Exton.
" Grünbaum.
" Hall.
" Hedgeland.
" Henley.
" Hooper.
" Hume.
" Julian.
" Macpherson.
" May.
" Waterhouse.

Bangor (Normal College):

Mr. T. Botting.
" E. R. Davies.
" E. H. Harding.
" D. Harris.
" H. Williams.

Bangor (North Wales Training

College):
Rev. Canon Fairchild.
" J. G. L. Swann.

Battersea (St. John's College):

Mr. T. Ayres.
Rev. S. Blofeld.
" H. Wesley Dennis.
Mr. H. E. Griffiths.
" E. Mills.
" H. H. Pells.
" W. Taylor.

Battersea (Southlands College):

Rev. J. Chapman.
Miss Harry.
" Holgate.
" Smiley.
" Walker.
" Williams.
" Winterbottom.

Birmingham (The University):

Miss F. C. Clark.
" Joyce.
" E. Sowerbutts.

Bishop Stortford (Hockerill

College):

Rev. A. E. Murray Aynsley.
Miss Crook.
" Fildes.
" Gwinn.
" Holman.

Brighton (Rose Hill College):

Miss Bell.
Rev. G. Corfield.
Miss Marshall.
" Mockford.
" B. Mockford.

Bristol (Residential College):

Miss Gowan.
" Kay.
" Roscoe.
Rev. J. R. W. Thomas.

Bristol—(University College):

Mr. T. S. Foster.
Miss D. Anstace Odell.
" Pease.

Cambridge (The University):

Mr. Oscar Browning.

Cambridge (Homerton College):

Miss Allan.
" Bodkin.
" Carter.
" Cook.
" Glennie.
" Hartle.
" Jackson.
" Jameson.
" Salmond.
" Varley.
Mr. Wilmot.

Cardiff (University College):

Mr. W. Phillips.

Carmarthen (South Wales

College):

Mr. H. S. Holmes.
Rev. Prof. Parry.

Chelsea (St. Mark's College):

Mr. O. Breden.
 „ F. Douglass.
 Rev. R. Hudson.
 Mr. J. W. Jarvis.
 „ A. W. Reed.
 „ C. G. Stirling.
 „ C. H. Swann.
 „ S. G. Teakle.

Chelsea (Whitelands College):

Miss Birch.
 „ Clark.
 „ Custance.
 „ Davis.
 „ Fordham.
 „ Ivatt.
 „ Luard.
 „ Siggers.
 „ Smith.

Cheltenham (St. Paul's College):

Rev. H. A. Bren.
 Mr. C. H. King.
 „ F. G. Perrins.
 „ H. Tinker.

Cheltenham (St. Mary's Hall):

Miss Bridgwater.
 „ King.
 „ Reynolds.
 „ Richards.
 „ Roberts.
 „ Welch.

Cheltenham (The Ladies' College):

Miss F. A. Smith.

Chester (Training College):

Rev. J. D. Best.
 „ D. H. Boyle.
 Mr. A. E. Chapman.
 „ C. L. Druce.
 Rev. A. E. Jackson.
 Mr. J. Shelley.

Chichester (Bishop Otter College):

Miss Beatty.
 „ Boaler.
 Rev. E. Hammonds.
 Miss Hammonds.
 „ Westaway.
 „ Wilding.

Crewe (Cheshire County Training College):

Miss H. A. Carson.

Culham (Training College):

Mr. H. W. Cousins.
 „ J. S. Davis.
 „ E. L. R. Evetts.
 „ C. H. Hardingham.
 Rev. A. R. Whitham.

Darlington (Training College):

Miss J. C. Grenfell.
 Mr. W. A. Spafford.
 Mrs. Spafford.

Derby (Training College):

Rev. A. B. Bater.
 Miss Davies.
 „ Field.
 „ Rawlinson.
 „ Southall.
 „ Ward.
 „ Williams.

Durham (Bede College):

Rev. D. Jones.
 „ T. Read.
 Mr. T. W. Powell.

Durham (St. Hild's College):

Rev. J. R. Croft.
 Miss Fish.
 Rev. Canon Haworth.
 Miss E. Hindmarch.
 „ W. Hindmarch.
 „ Skinner.
 „ Taylor.
 „ Thomas.

Exeter (St. Luke's College):

Rev. R. H. Couchman.

Exeter (Albert Memorial College):

Prof. J. M. Forster.

Hammersmith (St. Mary's College):

Mr. A. P. Braddock.
 Rev. Father Byrne.

Hereford (Training College):

Miss S. M. Smith.

Isleworth (Boro' Road College):**Kennington** (St. Gabriel's College):

Miss Bishop.
 „ Cooke.
 „ Dunn.
 Mrs. Clare Goslett.
 Miss Hele.
 „ Houlston.
 „ Stephenson.
 „ Taylor.
 „ H. Veale.
 „ Webb.

Kensington (Training College,
St. Charles Square):

Madame O'Flaherty.
 „ Knight.
 Rev. J. Worsley.

Leeds (The University):

Prof. J. Welton.

Lincoln (Training College):

Miss Elwell.
 „ A. Martin.
 Rev. Canon Rowe.
 Miss Turner.

Liverpool (Mount Pleasant
Training College):

Miss M. E. Bellord.
 „ Winfield.

Liverpool (Edge Hill Training
College):

Miss Collins.
 „ Cussans.
 „ Gaskin.
 „ Hale.
 „ Lowe.
 „ Penn.

Liverpool (The University):

Mr. J. H. Gettins.

London (King's College):

Mr. A. A. Cock.
 Prof. J. Adamson.

London (Training College, South
ampton Row, W.C.):

Prof. J. Adams.
 Miss F. J. Davies.
 Dr. Percy Nunn.
 Miss Punnett.

Manchester (The University):**Newcastle** (St. Mary's R.C.):
Madame H. Bodkin.**Newcastle** (Armstrong College):

Miss J. Hutchinson.
 „ S. E. S. Richards.
 Dr. G. H. Thompson.
 Prof. Mark R. Wright.

New Cross (Goldsmith's College):

Miss F. H. Birley.
 „ Catty.
 „ C. Graveson.
 „ Keary.
 Mr. W. Loring.
 „ T. Rayment.
 „ D. Ll. Savory.
 Miss H. Brown Smith.

Norwich (Training College):

Miss Boulter.
 „ A. L. Collard.
 „ E. Dixon.
 Rev. J. A. Hannah.
 Miss Hoare.

Nottingham (University College):

Prof. A. Henderson.
 Mr. E. A. Smith.

Oxford (Diocesan College):

Rev. T. T. Blockley.
 Miss Simpson.
 „ Walker.

Oxford (The University):

Mr. G. R. Scott.

Peterborough (Training College):

Mr. H. R. V. Ball.
 Rev. T. Ward.

Reading (University College):

Mr. H. S. Cooke.

Ripon (Training College):

Miss Goodacre.
 „ Mander.
 „ Newby.
 „ Palin.
 „ Waterhouse.

Saffron Walden (Training
College):

Miss Campbell.
 „ Dunlop.

Salisbury (Training College):

Miss Allen.
 Rev. Dr. Baker.
 Miss Forth.
 „ Gardiner.
 „ Grist.
 „ Montgomery.
 „ Newman.
 Rev. Canon Steward.

Saltley (Training College):

Rev. Canon Burbidge.
 Mr. S. W. Coombs.
 „ W. J. Douglas.
 „ H. I. Hobbiss.
 „ W. Miles.
 „ J. C. Walton.

Sheffield (Training College):

Mrs. Henry.

Sheffield (The University):

Prof. J. A. Green.

Southampton (The Avenue College):

Sister Antonia.
 Miss M. Coupe.
 „ C. Fox.
 „ B. Major.

Southampton (Hartley College):

Dr. S. W. Richardson.

Stockwell (Training College):

Miss Doran.
 „ Fisher.
 „ Heaton.
 „ Hutchinson.
 „ Liberty.
 „ Mackay.
 „ Manley.
 „ Mavor.
 „ Ridgeway.
 „ Todhunter.

Swansea (Training College):

Miss Grierson.
 „ Rodwell.
 Mr. D. Salmon.

Tottenham (St. Katharine's College):

Miss Austin.
 „ Barnes.
 „ Clout.
 Rev. W. M. Davidson.
 „ Preb. Hobson.

Truro (Training College):

The Bishop of St. German's.
 Miss Beavan.
 „ Cooper.
 „ Fountain.
 „ Gee.
 „ Goode.
 „ Peat.

Warrington (Training College):

Miss Bell.
 „ Blyth.
 „ Earlam.
 „ Ferriman.
 „ Frodsham.
 „ Hackett.
 „ Hilton.
 Rev. H. A. Lester.
 Miss Perry.
 Rev. Canon Stevenson.
 Miss Timewell.

Westminster (Training College):

Mr. A. Barriball.
 Dr. J. H. Cowham.
 Dr. Dunstan.
 Mr. J. H. Jackson.
 Mr. W. T. John.
 Dr. T. M. Lowry.
 Mr. E. A. Magson.
 Mr. Leight Smith.
 Rev. Dr. Workman.

Winchester (Training College):

Mr. A. Davis.
 Rev. Canon Martin.
 Mr. H. W. Padwick.
 Rev. R. A. Thomas.
 Mr. G. H. Turley.

Wood Green (Home and Colonial College):

Miss Drury.
 „ M. A. Fountain.
 „ A. Howe.
 „ Macken.
 Rev. H. Searle.
 Miss Stairmand.
 Rev. D. J. Thomas.
 Miss Wilkins.
 „ Wood.
 „ Wright.
 „ Young.

York (Training College):

Mr. W. T. Phipps.
 Rev. S. Walker.

THE PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

When you last did me the honour of electing me to the Presidential Chair of your Association, we were just at the beginning of that upheaval of the Course of Study in Training Colleges, which has gradually led to our present syllabus. We shall all, I think, agree that in breadth of outlook the present syllabus is an immense improvement on the unimaginative form in use, say, ten years ago; it is conceived on more generous and humane lines, specially on the literary side; the course of study in English and History gives scope to the good student, which was conspicuously lacking in the older form of the course of study; the style of question proposed in these subjects in the Board's Examination, also tends to promote an interest in the study of the subjects. In connection with the course of study, I will merely make reference to a few points.

(1) Now that the English syllabus is so ample, it seems hardly possible for the better students to do justice to the subject when tested by a single paper in the Board's Examination; it would seem better to include English, with History and Mathematics, as subjects requiring two papers.

(2) Whatever may be the outcome of the request that we shall no doubt again make from this Conference, for the earlier issue of the Board's regulations, I think that we might well urge upon the Board that appendices C and D of the regulations, containing the syllabuses in the various subjects, might be issued to the Colleges separately, without waiting for the rest of the regulations, at quite an early date, for instance at the beginning of the summer term. The Board should certainly know by that time the studies they wish students to undertake upon entering College in the

following September, and it would make all the difference to the teachers' preparation, and to the careful selection of class books, if thought could be quietly given to the matter during the term.

(3) In those parts of the course of study which demand considerable preparation on the part of the staff, it would seem advisable that the option should be given of using the same syllabus with two successive years of students; in former days it was not unknown, I believe, that certain sets of lecture notes did duty for considerably longer than two years; but it is in many cases more profitable to be in a position to make use of our preparation of one year, in an amplified form for the next year.

(4) Notwithstanding all that has been said on the subject, I still am unconverted on the subject of unclassified examination results. The mark of distinction in a subject no doubt is a guarantee, in most cases, in the Board's Examination of students in Training Colleges, that a high standard has been reached; though I should be sorry to say, that the same is true for the mark of distinction in the Preliminary Certificate Examination. But the system fails in its object, so long as certain subjects do not carry the right to a mark of distinction; I still believe that the best mode of conveying to students and Local Authorities the value of their attainments, is through the issue of a list arranged in three classes, the order in each class being alphabetical; though at the same time the present marks of distinction and notes of passes in optional subjects should be retained.

While the literary side of the question has apparently developed into a fairly quiescent and permanent form, there are other parts of the syllabus in which we get sudden great shocks; year by year changes are introduced on the 1st August, which, if acted upon fully would involve often a complete remodelling of the staff

equipment. While there is everything to be said for the persevering investigation of the best methods of instruction in elementary science, nature study, hygiene, speech training, and physical exercises, I do not care for ready made systems or for thinly-veiled hints that Colleges who work on independent lines are not treating such subjects seriously. I will merely give two illustrations.

(1) No one connected with the Training Colleges requires to be convinced of the utmost importance of healthy habits of life, and of the need of healthy surroundings; but it is unfair to think that hygiene as a practical training was neglected, until that subject was placed in the curriculum. Also it is unsound to lay down that hygiene can only be taught in one way. I quote from a letter to myself from the Board: "Physiology should be made the basis of the instruction in hygiene, and also of the instruction in physical exercises and voice production." There is an assumption here that any College which deals with these subjects on some method, which is not based on physiology, is not taking the matter seriously and is not giving efficient instruction. That there is a physiological explanation for all physical bodily action, is obvious; but it is not so obvious that physiologists have brought their subject to such a degree of certainty as to enable them to give these explanations without any dispute. Further, I very much doubt the scientific value of instruction based on conclusions which students cannot possibly verify for themselves. Is it not equally good "science" to base instruction on hygiene on the common experience of life? *e.g.*, a hardworking student spends the whole of his afternoon in study, and instead of making the progress which he thinks his industry deserves, he finds that he becomes dull, listless, and loses interest in his work; if he changes his habits, and spends more time on healthy exercise, he finds that he makes greater progress in his studies, though he spends less time at his books;

has a physiological explanation. But I very much doubt whether a knowledge of that explanation will have the smallest effect on the change of the man's habits of life. In varying degrees this appears to be true of such subjects as speech training and physical exercises. Anatomy is probably a more exact science than physiology, and to this extent, it is more possible to build up a system of physical exercises on a knowledge of anatomy, than it is to build up hygiene on a knowledge of physiology. But it seems to me to be fair "science" to hold that in all these cases the results must be in the main empirical; a certain habit or exercise is found to produce healthy results; this forms the foundation and starting point of the science. Physiology and anatomy give us hints for the improvement of that which has been already found to be good, but true science must be based on facts which are the product of experience, and theory can only be useful in so far as it is found to agree with experience.

(2) The second point which I must mention, and very briefly, is merely intended to clear up a passage in the prefatory memorandum in regard to physical training in our Colleges. The passage is this: "Investigation has shown that very few men students who leave our Training Colleges each year, have had any serious instruction in the principles on which the 'Official Syllabus of Physical Exercises for use in Public Elementary Schools' is based, and still less any effective practice in carrying out these exercises." It may not have been intended, but the natural deduction is that the subject of physical training has not been treated seriously in the Colleges for men; and the only criterion of our seriousness in the matter is our adoption of the Board's Syllabus of Physical Exercises. As far as I know the Colleges for men, it is absolutely unfair to say that we have neglected the physical training of our students. But in regard to the official syllabus, we need only remember the discussions that have taken place among

non-experts withhold their judgment for a time. We are told in a sentence of the memorandum which I commend to those who are going to take part in our discussion in English Composition. "The Board consequently regard it as one of the chief duties of the Training Colleges to ensure that each student, upon the completion of his or her course, should not merely be qualified to handle a class efficiently in the Board's Syllabus of Physical Exercises, but should also have been imbued with the broad physiological and hygienic principles which underlie it and have at least attained such an attitude of mind towards this important part of the school's work and influence, and such an instinctive appreciation of cause and effect in this sphere, as will induce in him a habit of keeping in view throughout his school work both the ends to be secured and the dangers to be avoided."

But surely we who are not experts may fairly ask, "Where on earth we are to find a statement of the broad principles with which we are to 'imbue' our students?" The task is the more complicated, as the printers inform me that these broad principles seem to be undergoing some process of modification or revision in a new edition which may be expected in some three months time.

But in all honesty, I must say that the attitude of the Colleges is one of profound seriousness in regard to the importance of such matters as hygiene and physical training; we are, however, bound to act upon sound educational principles; we do not like "ready-made" systems handed over to us; these should be the outcome of natural growth, and to be natural the beginnings must be humble, the growth slow; there must be constant testing and investigation, rather than rigid uniformity in all the Colleges; if the Board would frankly tell us that the official Syllabus of Physical Exercises was a first attempt at a vastly difficult subject, obviously full of imperfections, but an honest start; if they were to invite our co-operation in an investigation of the best

all heartily give, far better results would be assured, than are likely to result from the pompous moralisings of the prefatory memorandum.

To pass for a moment from our syllabus to our students, we are just beginning to feel the full effect of the change from the old pupil teacher system; the large proportion of our students have had some Secondary School education; it is early to form conclusions, and I shall merely make a few brief statements in regard to men students, by way of challenge, and as indicating a few points I have under observation.

(1) The character of the students seems to be more buoyant, there is more of the elasticity of youth, and we have fewer weary and serious old gentlemen of nineteen.

(2) But so far there are few signs of better education; there is much less information, a thing to be thankful for, but so far, I cannot trace much of that wider outlook in education which we associate with a Secondary School training. We hope that we find greater potentiality; there are fewer students like those who were in past days crammed into high places of the King's Scholarship List, and were choked in the cramming.

(3) We seem to detect much greater variety in the state of knowledge of the students on admission, some subjects have been studied far more effectually than in former days; while there are strange voids, especially in regard to those subjects which are required in Elementary Schools, *e.g.*, in the case of practical elementary science, either a student has had much wider laboratory experience than formerly, or he is almost without experience of any kind. I understand that very much the same can be said in regard to the previous training of our students in singing and the theory of music.

(4) There is, I think, some sign of a return to the study of the humanities in consequence of the association

of the Board to a more humane treatment of those students whose capacity has led them into a course of study for a University degree.

I must now ask your indulgence for a short time to enable me to offer a few comments on the organisation of our Association, and to make a few suggestions which I hope will be in the direction of improving its usefulness to our members. Every year I am more and more impressed with the need of some Association, such as ours, to unite those who are engaged in the training of teachers. But every year the problem becomes more complex; Colleges of varying types and with different ideals, have increased during the last few years; the type of pupils we have to deal with is becoming more varied, as they are drawn from schools of more varied character. Again, students from the Colleges mainly represented in this Association are allowed, under the terms of their agreement with the Board of Education, to work after leaving College, not only in Elementary Schools, but also in certain Secondary Schools; other Colleges not at present represented in this Association train teachers for Secondary Schools, though these teachers are often also eligible for recognition as certificated teachers in Elementary Schools. While there is an infinite complexity of detail in regard to the training of individuals, needing a careful consideration of their past education and the individual capacity of each student, yet behind all this, the actual problem of training, seems to be one. Take, for example, the work of the teacher in developing in his class a taste for and a love of good literature; the teacher of the upper standards in an Elementary School may only have at his command a limited field of English literature; and may only be able to appeal to a very limited previous knowledge in his class; while the teacher of the upper forms of a good Secondary School may be able to make use of a comparative knowledge of classic and modern foreign literature, and compare the styles of different periods of

intelligent interest in Art, and a certain amount of poetic taste; but the difference of treatment is one of degree, rather than of kind, and the teachers of the class of higher attainment will often gain much from watching the methods of a good Elementary School teacher in leading on the dull wits of his class by simple direct teaching; while the Elementary School teacher has all to gain from contact with those whose work lies with classes, whose grasp is firmer, and outlook broader.

The actual training problem seems to be so far one, that it would be a serious weakness, if those engaged in training could not be united into a single Association; we have all to gain, if the direct problems connected with teaching can be dealt with by those whose actual experience differs as widely as possible. Our Association has defined its membership in words which are broad in conception though rather clumsy in actual expression; we base our object on the ultimate position of our students as teachers, and not in relation to the type of school in which they are to work after the completion of training; our rule was drawn up when it was thought that the Teachers' Register had come to stay, and we defined our membership so as to render eligible all those engaged in the training of teachers, who would be officially recognised under that name. To consider the status of the product of our Colleges, rather than the type of schools supplied, is, I submit, the correct attitude, for an Association interested in the training of teachers.

May I say here that from letters I have received, I know that those who are engaged in the training of teachers, mainly for work in Secondary Schools, are watching our Association with deepest interest. There is at present a separate Association, representing these interests; but I am glad to say that I am authorised by the President of that Association to inform you, that a large majority of its members would welcome the opportunity of uniting with us, so that there should be a single Association only, provided that sufficient

dealing only with this particular type of College. Should this amalgamation be effected, I know that it would secure the support of people of importance who have not, so far, joined either Association.

Now, as far as concerns membership, the matter is easy; if the course of training in a College is such as would have been accepted under the conditions of the late Teachers' Register, for admission to any part of the register, all members of the staff of the College engaged in the training, are eligible for membership; if any members of the existing "Training of Teachers' Association" are not under our rule eligible for membership of our Association, I hope that the President of the former body will confer with me on the matter.

As for the opportunities for separate discussion; this is a subject which must be dealt with in its relation to all elements of our Association. Now that we represent so many different types of Colleges, some sort of subdivision for purposes of discussion seems to be absolutely necessary; but discussion by sections is one thing, public action by section is another; it appears to me that without any change of constitution, we can very usefully form sections of our Association, *e.g.*, Residential Colleges for Women, Residential Colleges for Men, Day Colleges connected with Universities, Day Colleges connected with Local Education Authorities; another section would provide the opportunity looked for by the present "Training of Teachers' Association"; each section could have its own chairman and secretary, and sections could meet either separately or in groups. But to preserve the unity of the Association, it would be absolutely necessary to protect the existing constitutional position of the Committee of the Association; nothing can go forward publicly, as the opinion of the Association, except from this Conference, or from the Committee appointed under our Constitution. Need this hamper the work of the sections? I think not; our Committee is formed of two members from each College;

ally follow with the formation of the corresponding sub-committees of our Committee. Now suppose that a section meets, and adopts certain resolutions, which they desire to go forward with the approval of the Association; these will be reported through the proper sub-committee to the Committee of the Association; if there is no urgency, the report will be made at the next Committee meeting; if there is urgency, the resolution can be circulated to all members of the Committee with a covering letter, saying that unless a special request for a Committee meeting is made in accordance with the constitution, the resolution of the section will be taken as approved, and will be brought up for formal confirmation at the next Committee meeting.

So far I have considered only sub-division by Colleges, but there is a second mode of sub-division which is perhaps of more general interest to the members of the Association, though I shall only be able to refer briefly to it. I mean the sub-division into groups, of the members in different Colleges dealing with the same subjects. One of the perplexities of the position is, that numerically the number of people engaged in the training of teachers is relatively small; while the studies they represent are so numerous that a complete sub-division would require almost as many Boards of Studies as in a University, and almost as many sectional meetings as at a British Association Conference. But something of the kind seems to be absolutely necessary; our Association must lose much of its usefulness if it does not afford opportunity for the teachers of a particular subject in the different Colleges to meet together from time to time, to discuss with one another their difficulties, and to compare their methods. In many Colleges one teacher is entirely responsible for a particular subject, and there is no opportunity for comparing practical experience with any other member of the staff of that College; it

be gained; it is surely one of the functions of this Association to take the initiative in promoting such discussions. Some such plan as this might be suitable; on the afternoon of the day before the Conference, sectional meetings, dealing with special studies, might be held from 2 to 3.30, and from 4 to 5.30; of course, meetings would be going on simultaneously, and members would have to choose the particular one of the most interest to them; short reports of these meetings could be presented at the Conference on the following day, and passed on for the consideration of the Committee.

There is, of course, a further mode of sub-division which I must merely indicate, though its relation to the future development of the Association is extremely important; I mean a sub-division in respect of locality. Again, I think that every encouragement should be offered by the Association to the formation of small circles of teachers of kindred subjects in various suitable centres about the country; the discussions among these small circles could well form the basis for the sectional annual discussions upon different studies, as outlined above; the annual discussion arranged on the day before the Conference on any particular subject for all the members of the Association would usefully focus the discussions which had taken place among the smaller circles, in the course of the year.

The outline given above merely represents my own personal hopes for developing into greater usefulness, the organisation of the Association, which has, in my own opinion, grown more and more useful in the course of years. This private expression of opinion, of course, commits the Association to nothing; but I sincerely hope that before this Conference closes, some instruction will be given to the Committee to consider the best lines on which the Association should develop to meet the growing demands upon it; and one plea I would most earnestly commend to our members; while I have advocated a sub-division into sections of a more or less

of discussion, and suggestion for the guidance of the Association; I would strongly deprecate the formation about the country of separate organisations apart from our Association, dealing with special studies, or special aspects of Training College life; the result of such action would not be that sub-division which is complementary to unity; but it would lead to that separation, which ends in disintegration and confusion.

In conclusion, I have but two remarks to make:

(1) If the objection is raised against my scheme, that it will involve more frequent journeys to the central place of meeting, which so far has been London (though I may again say that we in London are always ready to come to any other place of meeting which is settled by the Association), yet I submit that it is really more economical of time for groups of Colleges to meet as represented by their sub-committees, than to increase the number of Committee meetings demanding the attendance of the representatives of all the Colleges.

(2) My last point is one which was mentioned by our President of last year, and with which I thoroughly concur. We cannot possibly develop the useful functions of this Association without a greater command upon funds. We should have a central office, and a clerk in daily attendance; the growing demands of the Association put far too great a strain upon the good nature of our Secretary; if it were not for the actual labour of our Secretary in carrying our services for which he should have the assistance of a clerk, I do not know what would be the appearance of our annual balance sheet. But in addition to this, some one at the central office in London should be of the utmost use to many Colleges, for the purpose of obtaining information, and it would also facilitate the collecting of information from various Colleges, and the general investigation of many educational matters, which would be of immense use to our members. It is not the time to go into financial details. I would say only this, that it is impossible really to conduct the affairs of the Association efficiently on a half-

crown subscription; but that I believe that if all the members of the staffs of the Colleges felt that they were really helping on the general work of Training Colleges by joining the Association, and that also they were gaining valuable assistance in their own work by being members, they would feel that an annual subscription of 5s. was not too large a demand for the Association to make, though even then the financial difficulty would not be solved.

SECTIONAL MEETINGS.

I.—WESTMINSTER TRAINING COLLEGE.

Dr. COWHAM (Westminster) was in the chair, and Mr. MAGSON acted as secretary.

The meeting was well attended. Upwards of seventy were present. The discussion was full and was well sustained. Regret was expressed that more time was not available.

(a) *Practising Schools.*

Miss WALKER (Southlands) read a paper on "*Outside Schools*," and held that:—(1) Special schools should be attached to each College; (2) teachers in these schools, both Head and Assistant, should receive special recognition; (3) "critic teachers" should be selected for employment in the Practice Schools; (4) the scholars in all Practice Schools to have special consideration in their examinations.

Miss S. E. DAVIES (Derby) said that in the provinces the question of picking and choosing scarcely arises. No real difficulty arises with Head Teachers; they have always been most helpful and obliging. The responsibility is not thrown upon them, but every member of the college staff, as well as the two special method mistresses, helps in school practice. Sixty-six students are in charge of ten mistresses, so that thorough supervision can be given. The college tries by means of invitations to special lectures to gain the co-operation of the Head Teachers. When students visit neighbouring towns, at least two head mistresses or assistants from outside schools always accompany the party.

Miss BIRLEY (Goldsmiths) said the Head Teachers look upon it as a privilege to be on the list of Practising Schools. Students and the College staff introduce new and refreshing ideas. Each Practising School is used for three weeks at a time, twice a year. The Head Teachers say they like to have students twice, and they are most generous in the trouble they take with them. There is some difficulty with syllabuses, but in almost all the twenty-five Girls' or Mixed Schools they gladly accept our syllabuses for the three weeks in one or two subjects. We have syllabuses drawn up by specialists, and some of the Head Teachers are very eager to have these syllabuses and to adapt them to their schools. The special recognition of the Practising Schools ought to come from the College. It would be unwise for the recognition to come at present from the County Council, but the Council might be urged to appoint specially selected Head Teachers of the Practising Schools.

Miss BIRCH (Whitelands), Miss YOUNG (Home and Colonial), Miss C. M. AUSTIN (S. Katherine's), Mr. JARVIS (S. Mark's) and others also took part in the discussion.

(b) *Correlation of Mathematics, Etc.*

Dr. PERCY NUNN (London Day Training College) gave an address on the "*Correlation of Mathematics with Science and other School Subjects*."

The opener of the discussion referred to the variety of existing proposals with regard to the correlation of Mathematics with other subjects—such as Science, Geography, Domestic Economy and Manual Training—and explained briefly the principles underlying the methods applied in the Demonstration Schools of the London Day Training College. As far as possible the requirements of some problem drawn from one of the correlated subjects is made the point of departure for the teaching of each new method or notation in arith-

metic, geometry and algebra. Then follows a technical development of the new process more or less on the traditional lines. Finally, opportunities are provided for further application of the extended and perfected process over a wider range of practical problems than those which formed the starting point of its development.

Mr. HARDINGHAM (Culham) thought that in correlating mathematics with other subjects, there was a danger of assimilating that subject to elementary science, and so repeating twice over one kind of mental exercise in place of several, while the time table still professed to include two distinct subjects. He disagreed with the reader of the paper as to the origin of elementary geometry and algebra, in the desire to solve definite practical problems, holding that the Greek geometers and the fifteenth century algebraists worked from intellectual impulses only, and disliked practical questions. In the time table, he said, mathematics stood for the inculcation of two things: (1) accuracy; (2) reasoning; the first by numerical and algebraical simplifications, the latter by problems chiefly geometrical, and he should be sorry to see time taken from these things *without acknowledgment*, and devoted to something else.

Rev. S. BLOFELD (Battersea) said he supposed Dr. Nunn did not wish to banish the disinterested study of mathematics altogether, but only from the schools and that part of the Training College curriculum directly connected with work in the schools. He called attention to the enormous value of the historical method in teaching of natural science, but felt that the same method was by no means so valuable in the teaching of Mathematics. He also called attention incidentally to the possibility of overdoing the making of ingenious practical devices for the teaching of elementary rules, and said that the learning of rules cannot be attained without some real bloodshedding.

(Mr. Nunn) and Dr. NUNN also took

(c) *Records of Practice.*

Mr. JARVIS (S. Mark's) explained his "*Method of Recording the Results of Student Practice.*"

The question of the form of students' records was raised by Mr. Jarvis in the hope of eliciting from the members present the plans upon which the reports were drawn, and the form in which they were presented to H.M. Inspector, and filed for after use by the college authorities.

There was a general consensus of opinion that the simpler the form the better. Over-elaboration was disapproved of and details of the student's personality should be dealt with in the private criticism and not recorded.

The following took part in the discussion:—Miss HALE (Edge Hill), Miss FILDES (Bishop Stortford), and Mr. PHIPPS (York).

Votes of thanks were unanimously accorded the readers of the papers. The proceedings, which began at 3 p.m., concluded at 5.30.

II.—WHITELANDS COLLEGE.

(d) *Music in Training Colleges.*

The CHAIRMAN (Mr. Mills), in opening the discussion, pointed out the evidence that exists of the increasing lack of this necessary preparation, which prevents the student from deriving that benefit from the training college instruction which is so desirable. He considered that no secondary school should be allowed to receive bursars, unless efficient instruction in vocal music is available.

Mr. BARKBY proposed and Miss HOLMAN seconded: "That this sectional meeting of the Training College Association views with concern the increasing number of students, now entering Training Colleges, whose previous training in vocal music has been altogether inadequate or non-existent, and it urges upon the com-

mittee the necessity of bringing this matter before the Board of Education." After a very interesting discussion, this was carried unanimously.

A general conversation ensued when various points were raised, including the desirability of reviving the entrance examination in vocal music, the practice of model lessons in class singing, the award of the distinction mark in music, the theory paper of last July, and the optional course in music.

The following colleges were represented at the meeting:—Avery Hill, Battersea, Bishop Stortford, Brighton, Chelsea, Isleworth, Kennington, Liverpool, Edge Hill, Saffron Walden, Southampton, Stockwell with Homerton, Truro, Whitelands, and Wood Green (Home and Colonial).

THE PROBLEM OF READING.

By PRINCIPAL BURRELL.
(Borough Road College, Isleworth.)

I have been asked to speak for ten minutes on the way to improve reading aloud in the Colleges. I suppose we are to assume that the reading aloud is bad. This I beg leave to doubt; but, as there probably are very many bad readers, I will direct my few and laconic remarks at them. Perhaps I may be allowed to explain that on this subject I am a faddist, and that I expect no one to agree with me.

Bad reading comes from bad teaching in early days. If a child, a normal child, were wisely neglected, he would probably grow up to be a good reader. At the age of ten he is, if treated humanely, an admirable exponent of what is right and natural in stress and intonation. Anyone who doubts this may listen to him as he tells his comrades a story or reads a simple fairy tale to a younger audience. It is the teacher, himself ignorant of the principles of good reading, and handing on a false, hard, and stereotyped style, who spoils the child's reading for ever. The majority of teachers go so far as to encourage children to imitate *them*. This is the *ne plus ultra* of bad teaching.

When children grow up, their want of intelligence in matters literary is a fruitful cause of bad reading. They have been *taught* to read; whereas they should have *learnt* to read—a very different thing. Being unintelligent, they cannot attack a new passage and they fall back upon the teacher-tone they know so well.

Ignorance of English literature, of any literature, and a most limited vocabulary are the possessions of most young people. Never having read at all widely, they do not know the meaning of the most ordinary

words or the stories connected with the most famous names. They are quite unfamiliar with the narrative and the majestic music of the Bible; they are equally at sea if questioned about Isaiah, or the Maccabees, or Antigone, or Helen, or King Arthur; and owing to the thoroughly mischievous teaching of the modern psychologist they have either never memorized or have not revised their memory-possession. They do not know what a Common Place Book is. If persuaded to keep one, they make entry after entry (at least the men do) about the beauty of young women.

We find also in the young man an unbounded conceit in regard to his bad voice, his dialect, his bad reading, and his "expression." He will gaily attack Bacon's *Essay of Truth*, which is a hard test piece for a finished reader; and the less he understands it, the more he fills it with "expression." He cannot, will not, see that there is anything the matter with his reading.

Along with this unbounded conceit, goes an equally unbounded shyness. This is true of men and women; they will not speak out, though they can; they will not let themselves go, though they can; they will not allow themselves to show that they feel or would care to interpret any passage, though they can. Along, too, with these our difficulties go what are, to my mind, quite minor troubles—defective articulation, and dialectal peculiarities. These we should never meet at all. They should have been dealt with, if they require any treatment, at school. But it is no uncommon thing to find schools in which children grow up as stammerers and stutterers, and in which R, S, TH sounds are allowed to go on mis-sounded to the end of the chapter. I could give you heart-rending instances of the neglect of speech by parents and teachers; but you know I am telling the truth.

Nevertheless, ladies and gentlemen, I am not going to admit that the reading aloud in our Training Colleges, so far as I know it, is bad. Like the ignorance of and want of interest in, the Bible (with which it forms a strik-

ing parallel), bad reading yields to humane treatment; and I have come across many instances of young men who came up soaked with the teaching of the teacher, but who discovered, to their amazement and to their subsequent delight, that they were good readers after all. Their good reading aloud had been like some fourteenth century church plastered over with stucco: the pillars and the walls had only to be cleaned and the false stuff scraped away, and lo, underneath there were fine stone and tracery and medieval painting and colour and tone and harmony.

If I am to offer suggestions in order that the bad readers may be encouraged to improve, I would first of all plead that the reading and recitation in a College should be entrusted to an enthusiast who happens to understand the subject. It is needless to say that the enthusiasm is of more importance than the understanding: for every student has at the back of him somewhere the dramatic power, and only the enthusiast can tempt this out. The enthusiast, however, must be backed up by the staff and it will not do for one tutor to demand good speaking and reading while another permits the inaudible mutter which often passes muster in the answering of questions.

The next suggestion is that more time must be given to the subject and that classes must be small.

Again, one of the best ways to bring about improvement is to make a definite study of the Art of Story-telling. Every teacher thinks he can tell a story to a class of children; whereas, if the truth be known, not one teacher in a hundred can tell a story so well as the average child can tell it when that child is out of the teacher's ken.

Again, I would plead for a simple stage and for dramatic work in every Training College. I know of nothing which brings more conclusively home to people that they cannot be heard ten feet away, that they are infinitely too rapid, that they invariably neglect the one Golden Rule in reading and speaking, I know of nothing

better for them than being carefully and humanely coached for the playing of short pieces before small audiences.

Again, and here once more I admit the fad, I cannot understand why we should allow the Board of Education to be contented with a recitation power of three hundred lines. For my part, I would like this to be multiplied by one hundred; but I would take as an instalment three thousand lines; and any student should be allowed to submit *inter alia* the lines he had learnt from his infancy upwards. Why not? He will often have to repeat to children not Browning or Milton, but the lines they like and know and understand. But how any body which governs Education can be contented with hearing a sixth part of the students say lines, the learning of which should take about three days, this I cannot understand.

Again, and here I know I shall carry you with me, I should like the authorities in Training Colleges (this Association, if you like) to draw up the English syllabuses for the Board of Education. It is *we* who know what our students can do; it is *we* who know their limitations. Ladies and gentlemen, when I stand before a crowd of men who have never read or who have utterly forgotten *Tom Brown's School Days* and the *Pilgrim's Progress* and *Robinson Crusoe* and Kinglake's *Eothen*, when I stand up and ask them to read at sight Bacon's *Essay on Envy* or Charles Lamb's *Essay on Christ's Hospital*, or that most improper and unsuitable play *Cymbeline*, I confess I feel like a fool, or worse than that, a fraud. It is as though I were asking them to reap the full corn in the ear where there has been no ear, and no blade and no seed. You might as well begin your Greek on Thucydides' speeches.

Lastly, if we are to have universal good reading, we should be allowed to examine candidates in reading aloud when they come up to us. What an outcry there

plough not sixty per cent., but even five per cent. of the students at the Final Certificate Examination, for bad reading and bad recitation.

Talking, and nothing but talking, will not improve matters; and that is why I apologise humbly for taking up even ten minutes of your time. May I add, as a belated remark, but as a remark fit for a lady's postscript, that I believe my strictures, such as they are, apply chiefly to men's Colleges?

OBSERVATIONS ON THE TEACHING OF READING IN TRAINING COLLEGES.

By PROFESSOR WYLD (University of Liverpool).

This branch of instruction has always appeared to me to be among the most difficult and the most complex of the many subjects which form part of the Curriculum for the Training of Teachers. It is complex, for there are at least three different aspects of the subject to be dealt with; it is difficult, not only by reason of its complexity, but because, from the nature of the case, it involves teaching adults, teaching them to do something which many of them believe they can already do very well, a view with which their teachers frequently do not concur. If this is so, if our aim is to persuade these persons to alter their way of reading aloud and speaking in public, it will mean that we have to eliminate certain old-established habits, and gradually to form new habits.

The Problems which confront the Training College Lecturer, in this task, I take to be of a threefold nature.

- They are:—(1) Problems of Pronunciation.
(2) Problems of Voice Management.
(3) Problems of Expression, or the Interpretation of what is read or uttered.

The first of these problems is of a purely phonetic nature, and concerns the actual sounds of speech. The second may be said to be a question of Elocution, and is, or ought to be, the chief concern of the Elocutionist and the Singing Master. The third is partly a question of intelligence and emotion, but has also its external aspect, and this is intimately bound up with the control of the Voice, since in this instance, the Voice is the instrument whereby we express the various shades of thought and feeling contained in the passages we read.

It is, I think, clear that the three groups of problems which I have enumerated, although vitally connected, are quite distinct. You may have a beautiful and

to make yourself audible and intelligible to more than a dozen people at a time. Or you may have a hasty, nervous twittering mode of utterance which provokes either the mirth, or the impatience of your audience, because they can't follow what you say.

On the other hand, you may have a fine, well-managed voice, and what is called a "good accent," and yet, through some defect of intelligence, some lack of emotional sympathy, you may be unable to enter into, and therefore unable to express, the real meaning of what you read. Again, you may feel quite justly, what is the emotional or intellectual content of your author, but may be unable to convey your feeling to your hearers, because you lack the requisite skill in the management of the voice, because you can produce neither sufficient variety of intonation, nor an adequate range and intensity of volume. It appears, then, that the physical and mechanical side of reading, that is, the use of the organs in forming the sounds of speech, and the control of the voice in making oneself heard, bulks very large in the study which we are considering, and is involved in each of the three divisions of the subject.

The first plea which I venture to make is that the various problems should be dealt with systematically, and that the teacher should not attempt to deal with them all at once.

I propose now to consider briefly the questions of *Pronunciation* and *Voice Management*; the question of *Expression* I leave out of account on the present occasion, because the space allowed me is limited, and because, while its inward and psychological aspect is, as we all admit, a matter of cultivation and intelligence, the external aspect of *Expression* is knit up, as I have said, with the other two points, with which I now proceed to deal.

PRONUNCIATION.

The difficulties which beset the Training College Lecturer in connection with the pronunciation of the

whether in the case of Colleges in the southern provinces of England, it is the rule that the students possess, from the outset, a pleasing, cultivated and refined pronunciation of English. This may or may not be the case, but I think that those ladies and gentlemen who are connected with Training Colleges in the North and Midlands, will agree with me that, as a rule, the speech of their students requires their attention from the point of view of pronunciation. Speaking from my own somewhat extensive experience, I have no hesitation in saying that a very large proportion of Primary Teachers in Training speak a form of English which is strongly coloured by dialectal influence, and presents many features which, in my opinion, require to be eliminated or modified. I fancy that most people are agreed that for persons holding public positions in England, whether among the Clergy, among Professors, or among Schoolmasters, it is desirable, so far as possible, to secure a form of English speech which is free from strongly-marked provincial and other peculiarities. I assume, then, that in teaching Reading we are confronted with the task of "improving" the pronunciation of our students, and of removing certain defects.

These "defects," by which I mean *divergencies from the best recognised usage*, fall under three heads:—

A. *Personal idiosyncrasies* and defects of utterance.

B. *Provincialisms*, or features peculiar to *Regional Dialects*.

C. *Vulgarisms*, or features peculiar to *Class Dialects*.

Personal defects of utterance, such as inability to pronounce the *r*-sound (in *rat*, *right*, *very*, etc.), or the substitution of *f* for *th* (*fink* instead of *think*, etc.), may be due to some physical malformation of the vocal organs, but they are far oftener the result of bad habits which have been allowed to grow up unchecked in childhood. An intelligent person ought to be able to get rid of these careless modes of articulation quite easily, if only they are properly pointed out, their precise nature

Provincialisms, or features of *Regional Dialects*, are of a very different character, and require a much more systematic and prolonged treatment. I wish to lay particular stress upon the attitude of the would-be "corrector" of "defects" of this kind. I believe it to be very important, from every point of view, that the teacher should approach this subject in a delicate and scientific manner. The prevailing error is to regard *Regional Dialects* as something vulgar, debased, and contemptible. As a matter of fact, the historical position of these dialects as compared with that of what we call *Polite*, or *Standard English* is simply that, I will not say, of the *Ugly Sisters*, but, as it were, the unsuccessful sisters, who have married badly, and have not got on in the world. *Standard English* is merely one dialect which from various causes, social, political, and geographical, has emerged from the many, rich and varied forms of medieval English, and which has had the good fortune to become the vehicle of literature—since Caxton—as well as the received form of uttered speech, among well-educated, well-bred people. It must never be forgotten that the speaker of a Provincial dialect is *not* trying to speak *Standard English*, and failing; he is speaking an entirely different and independent form of English, which has a history, and an orderly growth and development, just as much as the most "refined" English spoken by the most cultivated or aristocratic persons.

Our view should be that historically, this or that Provincial Dialect, is not *worse*, or less noble than *Standard English*, it is simply *different*, and, owing to various circumstances, less suited than the latter for use among wider circles, especially in public life. It is a convention, if you like, that at the present day, among the most cultivated people, a certain dialect of English is spoken, to the exclusion of other types.

Vulgarisms, or Class Dialects.—Whereas a *Regional Dialect* is, as a rule, independent, in origin and history, from *Standard English*, the kind of features that we

varieties of Standard English itself, but bad varieties, inasmuch as they arise among vulgar and uneducated people. They are the forms of speech, not of a *Region* or *Province*, but of a *Class*. They usually are attempts to speak Standard English, but bad attempts, which the genuine Regional dialects are not. *Vulgarisms* are generally found in the speech of large towns: London, Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham, all produce peculiarities of pronunciation which are not primarily features of the genuine local dialects of the surrounding areas, though, of course, they may be influenced by these, but are simply and solely offshoots from Standard English, whose development is not associated specially with this or that geographical area, but with certain social divisions of the community.

HOW ARE WE TO "CORRECT" PRONUNCIATION?

Having now briefly characterized the main general types of divergence from what we may call "good English pronunciation," we have to consider how we shall best tackle the task of eliminating those features of which we disapprove, and of substituting for them something different. This is really what we undertake, when we try to "correct" or "improve" our pupil's pronunciation. To put this rather more scientifically and exactly, we are trying to substitute one dialect for another. The first principle which I venture to lay down is that the student must make a systematic study, first, of his own, natural, unaltered pronunciation, and secondly, of that pronunciation which he wishes, or which his teachers wish him to acquire.

The next principle is that the teacher must also first know quite definitely what are the sounds he is going to impart, that is, *he* must study *his* own dialect; and secondly, he must study that or those of his pupils.

PHONETIC TRAINING.

These principles involve a systematic phonetic instruction first of the pronunciation of the student.

that this investigation may be efficient, an elementary course of *General Phonetics* is highly desirable. This course should deal with the nature and mode of production of speech sounds in general, and should aim at training both the ear to appreciate more or less minute differences of sound, and the vocal organs to reproduce new sounds. A practical phonetic training must aim, above all things, at making the student fully conscious of those familiar positions and movements of the organs of speech, which are habitual and natural to him in his native dialect, but which he has never been taught to observe and realise. Most people do not even know what sounds they use, and, of course, the movement of the tongue and lips, upon which those sounds depend, are entirely remote from and alien to their consciousness. And yet there is not the slightest doubt that the first step in acquiring a new pronunciation is to realise, clearly and accurately, what one's own native sounds actually are; the next is to realise how and in what way the new sounds differ from them. But it is not enough to do this by ear. For it is quite possible to be able to hear that two sounds are different, and yet to be quite unable to utter that which is new and strange. It is fundamentally important that teachers should know that the vast majority of their pupils cannot learn a new pronunciation *by imitation alone*. The haphazard "correction" of isolated "mistakes" of pronunciation, as they occur, which is, I believe, a common practice in the old-fashioned *Reading Lesson*, is of little, if any, permanent value. Therefore, the first thing to do is to get the student to make a complete list of all his sounds, especially his vowel sounds, for in the vowels occur the greatest number of varieties. Then each vowel must be carefully analysed and described. For an explanation of what is meant by the "analysis" of a sound, I must refer the unphonetic reader to Dr. Sweet's *Primer of Spoken English*, his *Elements of Phonetics*, or his *Primer of Phonetics*, or to those chap-

Then the same processes of enumeration and analysis must be applied to the sounds of standard English, and the sounds of the latter should be carefully contrasted with those which exist in the Student's own speech. This is one side of the study of Pronunciation, the study of the *actual sounds in use*. The other, and no less important side is that of the *Distribution of Sounds*, that is, the study of the "right" usage of sounds. For instance, a Yorkshireman uses the sound in *put* in a much larger number of words than the speaker of Standard English. The Yorkshireman uses this sound, not only in some of the words in which it occurs in Standard English, but also in words where the latter employs the sound in *but*. Again, in some of the words which in Standard English have the sound in *put*, the Yorkshireman uses the sound which is used in Standard English in *spoon*; e.g., in such words as *hook*, *book*, *rook*, *cook*, and many others which end in *k*. Now supposing you have to deal with a Yorkshire student, and supposing you have taught him the (to him) new sound of English *but*. He has still to learn in which words this sound is used. He must know that we use it in, *blood*, *hut*, *rush*, *run*, *bud*, *cull*, *hush*, etc., etc., but that in such words as, *push*, *bull*, *put*, *book*, *foot*, *good*, *hood*, and many others we do not use it; and again that the sound which he uses in *book*, etc., we use in *spoon*, *brood*, *food*, *fool*, *school*, etc. This is what I mean by the *distribution* of sounds. The student must be taught to observe these things for himself, and compile lists, based on his observations, showing the distribution in Standard English of the various sounds which offer difficulty. These lists should be looked over and discussed from time to time by the teacher. Of course, the nucleus of these lists must be given to the student in the first instance by the teacher, and the student's task is to amplify and complete them.

The advantage of such a method as that which I have ventured to outline is that it is exhaustive and sys-

but every sound is thoroughly dealt with in turn, both as regards its precise nature and also as regards the words in which it is used.

USE OF A PHONETIC NOTATION.

I have not the faintest hesitation in saying that the use of a simple phonetic notation is essential in the teaching of reading aloud. From the point of view of the distribution of sounds, it is obviously of the greatest help to have the precise sounds indicated in each word. Therefore I advocate reading from phonetic texts. Again, the practice of using phonetic script on the part of the student, is a great stimulus to habits of accurate observation. I therefore further advocate the practice (a) of recording the individual's own pronunciation by the constant transliteration of passages to represent the pronunciation of the writer, and (b) of taking down in phonetic script dictated passages, in which the student puts down what he *hears*, no matter how much it differs from his own usage. This latter will strengthen the knowledge of the sounds of Standard English, and of their distribution. It is very useful to introduce variation by asking different students to dictate passages, and inviting the class to note the varieties in the sounds, and in their distribution.

Phonetic notation is a great bugbear to many teachers who have never tried it, but I can assure them from long experience that the difficulty is imaginary, and that even quite stupid students, unless they are also very idle, learn to use a phonetic alphabet with very fair accuracy in a few weeks.

WHAT TO AIM AT IN PRONUNCIATION.

Two questions arise under this heading. The first is what kind of pronunciation to take as a standard, the other is how far we can go in insisting on the alteration of a student's pronunciation. As regards the first point, I have already defined *Standard English* repeatedly in

that subject. It remains, however, to say a word or two on the type of Standard English which should be expected from students in reading aloud. Personally, I hold that the greatest and most offensive sin in the public speaker or reader is pedantry or preciousness in any shape or form. These habits of mind are shown most clearly, in pronunciation, in undue preciseness in uttering unstressed syllables. It would be a lengthy business to enter into details on this head, but I may briefly sum up my own feeling by saying that the best public speakers approximate their pronunciation in public utterance to that of well-bred, unstudied, easy, colloquial pronunciation. Above all, do not commit the preposterous and egregious absurdity of saying that "*every letter must be pronounced.*" Anyone with a slight knowledge of the history of English and of English Spelling could soon show what disaster this piece of ignorant advice will land people in. The best advice to give is, observe how well-bred speakers pronounce who are devoid of conceit, priggishness, self-consciousness and any theories of what is right or wrong, and take such persons as models.

I pass now to the question of *what to correct*. This must very largely be determined by the aptitude of the student. As a rule, if a student has a very marked Dialectal pronunciation—if he is, in fact, a native dialect speaker, it will be useless to attempt to alter his whole mode of speech. When you have the statistics of his pronunciation, in the careful analysis of each sound suggested above, you will have a complete diagnosis of his case. The best advice I can give is, when you know the facts, concentrate upon the most distinctive *Provincialisms* and *Vulgarisms*; insist upon their elimination and upon the substitution of the Standard forms in the Reading Lesson. When the student knows exactly what are the features of his pronunciation which he must abandon, and with equal exactness what he is to substitute for them, he must practise the new sounds until he can use them easily and natur-

printed phonetic texts and from the passages which his teacher dictates. I think that anything in a pronunciation which is so great a divergence from the polite usage as to be at once noticeable, should be got rid of. These features will be different, to some extent, in each student—hence the necessity, already alluded to, for the teacher to know exactly what are the main characteristics of the speech of *each* of his pupils.

VOICE MANAGEMENT.

I have left myself but very little space for this important side of Reading aloud, or public speaking. The proper management of the speaking voice is clearly the business of the teacher of Elocution. Unfortunately these Artists are usually more concerned with imparting stilted and artificial *pronunciation* than with the main side of their craft. From my experience of the doctrines of professional Elocutionists regarding the pronunciation of English, I am very little inclined to take them seriously. These theories are generally based upon an antiquated tradition, upon a false conception of the nature of the problems of pronunciation, and complete ignorance of the development of the language. We don't want theories of how people *ought* to pronounce, but definite statements, based upon accurate and unprejudiced observation, as to how, as a matter of fact, good, well-bred, cultivated speakers actually do pronounce.

The chief elements of a "good delivery" are audibility and clearness of utterance. The former is largely a matter of *Resonance*, the latter of well-trained vocal organs, skilful and accurate in articulation. These qualities may be acquired by honest, well-directed practise of phonetic exercises. Resonance depends upon a good vibration of the vocal chords, and the proper diversion of the air-stream, so that it impinges upon the hard palate, instead of upon the soft palate which muffles and obscures the sound. At present, the power of obtaining a good, vibrant note, whether spoken or sung, seems

of the individual. The test of a good voice, or rather of a well-managed voice, is that the speaker can fill a hall or room of ordinary size without any strain or effort.

Bad readers and speakers often "drop the voice" at the end of a sentence. This arises from the fact that there is a tendency to reduce the resonance as the tone is lowered, and the end of a sentence being uttered, as a rule, with lower tone than the beginning, by the time the lowest tone is reached, the resonance has been reduced to nothing. A little practice in gradually lowering the tone, without diminishing the resonance, will soon cure this defect.

A frightfully irritating habit is that of filling up pauses with the meaningless "er, er." This habit can easily be got rid of if the student is taught to unvoice, that is, to cease the vibration of the vocal chords, in pauses. This simply produces complete silence during the pause.

Another very important element in good reading and speaking is the *speed* with which the sentences are uttered. The general tendency is to read and speak far too quickly. Fairly slow utterance is far more impressive, and far pleasanter to listen to, than one which is over-rapid. Of course, the speed will naturally vary, within limits, according to the style and matter of that which is read. This is a matter for good taste to decide, and falls under the head of *expression*.

A common mistake, in those who are inexperienced in public speaking or reading, is to pitch the voice too high, under the erroneous impression that a voice so pitched carries farther than one pitched lower. The truth is, of course, that every speaker is at his best when speaking in what is, for him, a natural key, and he will be most effective if he chooses as the average note on which to speak, a middle note, from which he can either rise, or fall in tone without any effort.

It will, I think, be found useful and efficacious to tackle these, and other defects in voice management

illustrated by specific examples, in each case, of the particular fault, and the method of its improvement. On the whole, I am inclined to advocate that short passages of various kinds of prose and verse should be taken as models and learnt by heart, in such a way that every detail of pronunciation, emphasis, and intonation is reproduced by the student, just as it is uttered by the teacher. This means, of course, that each of such passages must be repeated again and again, bit by bit, until the whole is familiar. But a detailed analysis of each of such passages must precede the learning of it as a whole. The sounds can be represented in phonetic notation, and every detail should be commented on and explained. The emphasis and variations of intonation can also be marked in the notation, as a means of refreshing the memory on these points in private study, when the living voice of the teacher is no longer there as a guide.

I know that some teachers deprecate the giving of such models as likely to produce an unreal and mechanical mode of reading. But I submit that if a few of such models are thoroughly assimilated by the student they will serve as a basis for everything he reads, and gradually, with the increase of experience, and the growth of his own culture, he will be able to apply what he has learnt, not as something to be slavishly followed, but as a model and basis upon which he may build his own interpretation of literary passages.

I have only been able to indicate a few points which require attention in training the speaking voice. As regards the problems of pronunciation, in venturing to offer for your consideration the outlines of a rather thorough and, as you will perhaps think, an over-elaborate scheme, I am fully conscious that details must be left to the experience and the personal enterprise of the individual teacher. On the other hand, I believe that the main general features of the method which is here suggested will be found, if given a fair trial, to be sound.

method which may be adopted, Reading cannot be profitably taught unless the various classes of problems involved are recognised, and unless each be dealt with separately and systematically.

DISCUSSION.

Rev. A. B. BATER (Derby) was of opinion that Principal Burrell's statement as to the origin of bad reading required some modification. It was not correct to say that "bad reading comes from bad teaching in early days," but rather that much bad reading was caused in that way. Again, he could not agree with Principal Burrell's statement that "if a child, a normal child, were wisely neglected, he would probably grow up to be a good reader." Good reading was no more the product of chance for the great majority of people than was good singing or good painting. He deprecated Principal Burrell's idea that good reading was not to be taught, and said that in his opinion much could be done in Training Colleges to inspire the students with a desire to read and recite in the best way, and to give them such sound instruction in this connection that when they went out into the elementary schools of the country they would carry on the good work.

The great need in the teaching of recitation and reading was the cultivation of intelligent thought and effort on the part of the pupil. Too much was done in the way of "*unintelligent*" imitation. From the first the pupil should be made to think for himself. A few lines of recitation should give as much scope for thought as a problem of mathematics. Every change in pitch, every pause, each alteration in force or manner should be intelligently accounted for by the pupil. In this way only could the intelligence of the pupil be respected and fair play given to his desire for individuality and originality. The difficulty felt by many readers in attacking some new or strange paragraph was due to their lack of initiative consequent upon "*unintelligent*"

There was urgent need of an expert examiner in the subjects of reading and recitation; not an expert in phonetics alone, but one who was distinguished in every branch of the subject, "healthy respiration, clear utterance, pure musical pronunciation," and such powers of expression as would bring home to the listener the true meaning of the piece read or recited.

At present the work done in colleges in these subjects was tested by those who could not see below the surface, who were unable to appreciate the infinity of pains, which underlay the work presented, or to say how far what was done was original or merely imitative.

There was no subject in the syllabus at the present time more valuable than that of reading, recitation, and the use of the speaking voice, nor was there any subject in which teachers required more help and encouragement.

Miss FOGERTY (Lecturer in Speech Training, University of London) said the special point she wished to emphasize in relation to the teaching of Reading was the necessity for a sufficiently elementary beginning. Two different objects have to be kept in view: (a) the training of an instrument; (b) the manner in which that instrument is to be used. It is in connection with the first that the question of dialect comes in. Many forms of word mispronunciation are fatal to the production of pure vocal tone. These must be corrected. What further corrections of pronunciation are attempted may be a matter of opinion, but the teacher, as the best speaker the majority of his pupils will ever hear, must avoid excess of personal peculiarities, and must maintain a standard of spoken English.

The greater part of speech training is physical; once physical control and pure audible speech have been obtained, the use made of them in speaking may largely be left to the taste of the individual. The chief obstacle to good reading will then be found to be paucity of vocabulary. Can anyone suggest a really

THE CULTIVATION OF STYLE IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

By KATHERINE T. STEPHENSON (St. Gabriel's College).

Resign the rhapsody, the dream,
To men of larger reach,
Be ours the quest of a plain theme,
The piety of speech.

R. L. STEVENSON.

Students in Elementary Training Colleges are at least eighteen years old when they enter, and have usually spent a considerable portion of their time before entrance in studying, and another considerable portion in teaching, in this latter occupation being forced to practise themselves in oral expression. We might reasonably expect then, that such persons would, upon entering College, show themselves able to write upon some ordinary subject of fact or opinion, in prose which, though not absolutely deserving the epithets lucid, coherent, and harmonious, would yet show a striving after lucidity and coherence, and some appreciation of the sound and value of words. But we do not find these characteristics in the work of our students when they come up. Very few can express themselves well on paper. Some can scarcely express themselves at all. The efforts of these last can only be called inarticulate. That is a somewhat severe criticism, but I do not suppose that this audience will dispute it.

What are the causes of this lamentable state of things?

There are, I think, three principal ones. We find when students come up that, (1) their knowledge is very scanty, (2) they are unable to think coherently about any subject of which they perhaps have some knowledge, for the length of time necessary for the writing of an essay, (3) such knowledge or opinions as they have they cannot express.

Now we should look I think, chiefly to the mental training given by the whole course of study to remedy the defects indicated under (1) and (2) while "Composition" in particular should be concerned with (3).

Considering (1), (2), and (3), then, it seems clear that the work in Composition set to students in their first year should not consist of the writing of essays on given subjects, but of varied exercises, all tending to develop the power of expression. Let the material be supplied to them in various forms; for not only are various exercises necessary for this purpose, but variety will also help to keep interest alive in what must be exceptionally dreary work to the uninterested.

No doubt when any subject is studied the greater part of the work *ought* to be done by the student. In this case it *must* be. Almost anyone can be *forced* into the position of being able to solve quadratic equations, or of knowing the contents of a "set book," but no one can be forced to make any real progress in the art of literary expression who does not genuinely and continuously want to. One aim of the lecturer therefore must be to create a continual and lively interest in the matter.

I suggest the following general arrangements for the teaching of Composition:—

- i. In the first year the classes should be small. If possible only 20 in a class; never more than 25.
In the second year there might be 40 in a class.
- ii. The classification should be by merit.
- iii. A considerable number of the staff should take part in the teaching of Composition.
- iv. Every exercise set should be corrected by the lecturer.
- v. The exercises should be done in books, so that they can be preserved for reference.
- vi. The lecturer's "corrections" should be critical or interrogative, but not emendatory.
- vii. A "corrected" exercise should be amended by the student before the next is attempted, and these amendments should be inspected by the lecturer.

GENERAL SCHEME OF WORK.

In the first year: Very little essay writing. Miscellaneous exercises.

In the second year: Chiefly essay writing. The subjects sometimes given out beforehand for reading and reflection, sometimes done on the spur of the moment, as at the certificate examination.

It remains to offer a few very obvious suggestions as to the miscellaneous exercises which can be set. I have preceded these by a list of the faults I have most frequently observed when reading over Composition exercises, with specimens of work which has actually come under my notice, as illustrations of some of these faults.

- 1.—Elementary mistakes in grammar, spelling and punctuation.
- 2.—Faults in the construction of a sentence.
 - A. Overcrowding.
 - B. The coupling of ill-matched words, particularly nouns and verbs.
 - C. The use of trivial or weak expressions, words ugly in themselves or ugly because ill-assorted with others, hackneyed figures of speech, colloquialisms.
 - D. Want of balance and rhythm.
- 3.—Faults in the construction of a paragraph.
 - A. Lack of a central idea.
 - B. Lack of continuity.
 - C. Irrelevance.
 - D. Repetition.
 - E. Omission.
- 4.—Faults in the composition of an essay.
 - A. Lack of the sense of proportion.
 - B. Lack of continuity.
 - C. Misunderstanding of the subject.
 - D. Narrowness of view.
 - E. Irrelevance, repetition, omission, diffuse-

SPECIMENS.

It is hard to decide whether the notable characters of the 16th Century had power to control their own affairs so as to make them fortunate, or whether the good results of their domestic and political matters were only from chance.

It is very difficult to say whether the characters of the 16th Century controlled the affairs of the nation, or whether the affairs themselves decided how they should act.

Keats has a good command of language and he uses fitting words which have a sound of their own, and convey a vivid picture to our minds.

Most sonnets connect the whole force of the sonnet into the last two lines.

A person who possessed an exquisite confection in perfect taste which was intended for evening wear, would be displaying a parvenu love of wealth if she wore it on an occasion which called for less elaborate apparel.

Ulysses' mind was filled with progressive desire.

On the outer band there is a pattern occurring five times, and is made up of hockey sticks and balls, which alone impresses the onlooker what kind of a shield is before them.

The human mind is justified in believing in circumstances which have been written by historians whose several accounts support each other.

The nation could not take an example of good morality from their king for many of his actions were far from being those which the leader of a nation should do.

What were the objects of Henry with regard to his sudden change towards the Clergy?

EXERCISES.

- 1.—A passage of prose or poetry with single words omitted here and there to be considered and the missing words suggested (for 2, B and C).
- 2.—Given a paragraph, supply a short heading to it (*cf.* the headings in Gibbon and other historians).

- 3.—Given a passage of prose, or short poem. Annotate it (for 4, A; 4, E).
- 4.—Set an examination paper on a given chapter of history, etc.
- 5.—Rewrite a passage of slightly antiquated English in modern style (2, C).
- 6.—Describe some character or object, without using adjectives.
- 7.—Take sentences from some standard author, *e.g.*, Macaulay. Consider their balance and rhythm. Compose similar sentences upon other subjects.
- 8.—Expand an outlined story (see Hartog on English Composition).
- 9.—Consider a passage of prose of some (but not great) difficulty. Write a connected explanation of it.
- 10.—Show the sequence of ideas in an argumentative passage.
- 11.—Consider the use of quotations, illustrations, proper names and so on.

Introduce given quotations, etc., into a paragraph.

The vivacious lecturer will find no difficulty in improving and adding to these suggestions. Some cheering results have been obtained by work done on these lines. But literary taste and facility of expression are plants of slow growth in any soil. In two years they certainly will not reach maturity. We must not expect it, nor must we be unreasonably disappointed when a second year student writes sedately such a sentence as—"Milton used sonnets with a good amount of success."

These things will happen. The motto for both lecturer and student must be the inspiriting (and only) piece of advice which a certain French artist used to give to his pupils: "Continuez, Messieurs et Mesdames, continuez toujours." And if we can kindle and keep alive in our students an interest in the matter as eager as our own, we too may claim (with Milton) to have achieved "a good amount of success."

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE POWER OF LITERARY EXPRESSION.

By A. W. REED (St. Mark's College).

Frankly, I do not think that we ought to look for any striking measure of success in this matter in the men's colleges.

The ordinary critic is quite right when he tells you that the writing of the average student is discreditable to a man of his age and of his vocation. We find grammatical blunders, elementary faults of syntax, neglect of punctuation, misuse of capitals, and unpardonable mis-spellings. We find that words are misunderstood, that phrases are ambiguous in meaning, that the vocabulary is very limited, that the appropriateness of adjectives is not considered, and that the man writes with much glibness, notwithstanding. We find no sincerity in the writing; it is merely conventional; the man is desperately willing to say anything that he conceives to have some bearing on the matter in hand.

We need not enlarge on these facts; the critic is right; they are discreditable. But, I would ask, how could it be otherwise? We have pilloried the average student; let us see what manner of man he is; and, as it is his writing that is under consideration, let us see if we have any justification for expecting him to be able to write.

Most people who take a pleasure in writing or are more than ordinarily well read, can look back to those early years when some older friend sowed in them the seed of an enthusiasm for good books. It has not been so with him. The standard of taste in books is low in his home circle. His critic may be a man of a classical education, brought up to weigh, in his proses, verses and translations, the appropriateness of words and the balance of phrases. He may be a man of liberal education, well schooled in the life and language of other countries. Those advantages, so potent in producing

not been enjoyed by our student. If we may make an adaptation from Bacon, "He hath read but little, and he hath need of much cunning to seem to know that he doth not." He is neither a "full man," nor a "ready man," nor an "exact man."

His studies have lain beyond the range of his interests, especially his studies in history and literature. Occasionally he has been called upon to undergo the nervous strain of an examination, and then, and, usually, only then, has he been invited to commit his thoughts to writing. If his interest in any of his subjects has been truly aroused, the atmosphere of an examination is hostile to any true reflection of that interest. We may, indeed, assume that he has never written with sincerity, and, probably, never with pleasure. Rather, he has come to look upon writing as an unnatural operation in which by great good luck he may say what is expected of him. A young man writing under compulsion from a very meagre store of conventional facts, will, of course, treat you to much that is irrelevant and much that is banal. He will, however, sin in the well known company of the after dinner speaker or the bachelor who responds for the ladies. They are not themselves for the moment, and they take refuge in irrelevance and conventional banalities.

In all this, however, we find that grim, conscientious effort that marks his early written work in college. Is it to be wondered at that this effort soon fails under the new and congenial atmosphere of corporate life? He becomes careless, his carelessness becomes a habit, and in time we turn upon him and point out that his English is discreditable. Such is the average student; and I now ask you to consider the original proposition: "How can we develop in him the power of literary expression?"

Can we from the first awaken and maintain in him a spontaneous interest in his English subjects? Without it, little eventual progress is possible. But to suc-

and conventionality are his weaknesses. We must be strangely simple and patient in our lectures. We must teach him to read, read aloud to him, move him to a sense of rhythm, to the secret significance that a well used word will yield. There must be an end to all that is dull and academic in our lectures; we must banish, too, the brilliant effort that excites as much bewilderment as admiration. We must strive to get into close touch with him, to know him in his games, his interests, his prejudices, and his worries; and if any man obdurately evades us, he is often assailable when he is ill. In this atmosphere, teaching becomes more sincere, more direct; and cant, banality and irrelevance are out of their element.

There remains, however, the practical side of the matter. I venture to lay it down as a working rule that in almost every subject there should be one hour's writing for every two, or at most, three lectures. In this written work our first and constant aim must be to secure correctness and precision. We must train the men to liberate themselves from their puerile blunders in grammar, syntax, spelling, and punctuation. This involves hours of serious marking, but the student responds to strict marking. The scope for this practice of correctness and precision is indeed great. Imagine the satisfaction of a mathematical lecturer who can depend on a *logical* statement of a geometrical exercise from the majority of his class, and imagine, too, the value added, in consequence, to the study of mathematics. I repeat that I am convinced that we do not get enough writing in any subject from our men.

The standard of correctness in all written work must be a high one; no lower, in fact, than that required by, let us say, one of the proof readers of Mr. Hart of the Oxford University Press.*

We must give ample time for all written work. If more than two subjects in English or History are set in an hour, the probability is that the men will sink

back into their worst faults. And not only must we give ample time but we must see to it that the questions are worth the answering and marking. If we have frequent papers, the questions naturally cease to be inquisitorial. The periodical "test" disappears, with its ingenious devices ensuring that no goat slips through amongst the sheep. Rather, our ingenuity will be exercised in making questions that are stimulating and suggestive, that provoke interest and originality, and are, afterwards, a source of useful discussion.

I am a wholehearted believer in the paraphrase as an exercise in expression, if the original passage be of adequate difficulty. I find that the expectation of a weekly exercise of this kind sends men to their dictionaries in a most salutary way. Those students who take another language should have much practice in written translation.

In this way, by cultivating enthusiasm and by securing precision, we may achieve, at least, a measure of success. We shall arrive at simplicity, orderliness, and consecutiveness. We shall see in the writing a reflection of the interest we have awakened, and we shall succeed in abolishing cant. I am afraid, however, that we shall still be far from anything worthy of the name "literary expression." No, there are some things that are too hard for us. Many of our ideals are unattainable in the two short years of College life. We can only surmount some of the obstacles that stand in the way of our achievement; yet, in the breaking of the mist, we may show our men from the vantage ground we have gained that there is a pleasant land beyond, into which they may go themselves. If we have that sounder faith that sees other agencies than our own working towards the end we seek, we shall not be surprised if our success is greater than seemed possible. Ten years after he has left College, many a student who used to lag behind, will discover himself to you a man of no mean culture and of much natural sensibility.

DISCUSSION.

Rev. S. BLOFELD (Battersea) welcomed such a thoughtful contribution to a subject the teaching of which is at present in so nebulous a state. He felt that there was a danger of overloading lectures in connection with this literary work. The aim should be towards the covering of small ground in lectures and the doing of that as thoroughly as possible. Everything possible should be done in the way of careful questions, which make for research work on the part of the students. Strict and critical marking of answers undoubtedly added to the interest which could be aroused in students. With regard to paraphrase, the speaker felt very strongly that this work should only be asked for in connection with passages of real difficulty. The speaker commended occasional verse composition as a practical method of familiarising the student with diction.

Miss Fox (Southampton R.C.) subscribed to the recommendation to reduce the number of essays in the first year, seeing that their previous reading had been outside their college studies and hence they were tempted by lack of knowledge into insincere expressions of opinion. She commended the careful study of selected portions of the great writers, with an attempt to place the students in the attitude of mind the found expression in the form of the great writers. For instance, a description of the Alps would precede the reading of the "Hymn in the Vale of Chamounix." This description might or might not be followed by a composition. Almost always, with students, an outline is preferred. We do not realise the power generated by the preparation of an outline. The reading of the passage follows the outlined or completed composition. To inexperienced teachers the guidance furnished by the necessity of working towards the passage to be read is valuable; even experienced teachers are helped by it. To the pupils the plan is at least as valuable. They are possessed—or should be—by the thought

that inspired the masterpiece; and the result of hearing its perfect expression is, to some extent, that produced on those fortunate children whose earliest attempts are moulded by the perfect English spoken by those around them. A further claim for the plan is that it increases the amount of reading done and extends its range, introducing the students to many writers in many moods. As an approach to literature it has other values.

Miss RICHARDS (Armstrong College, Newcastle-on-Tyne) sends the following notes with respect to Miss Stephenson's paper:—

The paper on the cultivation of style contains a very exhaustive summary of all the possible delinquencies of the average student, together with detailed suggestions as to a curative course to meet the varying needs. May it be permitted to raise questions upon both these points?

(i.) Is the average student, who by a process of elimination reaches the training college, really so ill-equipped as he is commonly said to be? Is it not possible that his may be but an apparent failure?

(ii.) Is a detailed course in English Composition, such as that suggested, what the student really needs to teach him the art of expression?

It is a wise maxim that recommends the would-be author to sit down to *write* what he has *thought*, and not to *think* what he shall *write*. Is it not conceivable that here may be the difficulty of the student, that he is so often required to produce in perfect form an essay on a subject of which he knows but little, that he is, in fact, so frequently asked to make bricks without straw? Ask him to write upon a matter in which he is interested and of which he, therefore, has some knowledge and he will produce a quite creditable essay. This was extremely well illustrated recently in a number of long and detailed accounts written by students on the subject of their annual visit to country schools. In the majority of cases descriptions were good, some were

remarkably good, and I believe this was due to the fact that the writers were asked to describe matters well within their knowledge.

Of technical errors, such as punctuation, use of capitals and others which have been enumerated, there is always a certain percentage among a large number of essays, but these are such as should be easily corrected incidentally in the varied written work that is required of the student. It is surely the old question of *Form versus Matter*, and failure in the art of expression is generally attributable to the lack of material, and not so much to the lack of the power to set forth material. Hence it may perhaps be justifiable to claim that the all too frequent failure is to a considerable extent but an apparent failure. Necessarily, one excepts extreme cases.

Granting, however, that the average student may fail in this respect, the question of the remedy naturally presents itself, and the one suggested is a very systematic course in English Composition. I would submit that such a course is for two reasons undesirable, although not for a moment would I question that it may be productive of the most valuable results.

(i.) It is most essential that the training colleges should demand a high standard of attainment from those who claim admission. The work suggested in the proposed course is what might well be done by any good secondary school, and any assumption that the secondary school does not intend to fulfil what is required of it, is detrimental to the true interests of both school and college. The increased possibilities of secondary education for the intending elementary teacher should therefore make a systematic course in English composition unnecessary in a training college.

(ii.) Next I would submit that the curriculum of the training college is too full to permit of its doing the work of a secondary school, even if it were desirable.

Surely the ideals of a college should be wider; its aims should be to give to its students something of academic culture, limited, of course, because in their case academic work and professional training must be carried on simultaneously, but, nevertheless, wide enough to open to its alumni the possibilities of a more liberal knowledge than the pupil teacher, with the all too frequent self-complacency and self-satisfaction of the unawakened mind, can ever reach.

The fulfilment of such an aim demands time, time for a wider reading, for a more intimate acquaintance with the masterpieces of literature, time to atone for that deficiency in knowledge which makes the art of expression so difficult. The old Platonic theory of unconscious imitation is as true to-day as it was when Plato urged that men should set good models before their pupils that they might "dwell in a land of health amid fair sights and sounds, and receive the good in everything, and beauty, the effluence of fair works, might flow into the ear and eye like a health-giving breeze from a purer region."

Dr. THOMSON (Newcastle-on-Tyne) thinks the question of style has best been set forth by Montaigne: "So that our disciple be well and sufficiently stored with matter; words will follow apace, and if they will not follow gently, he shall hale them as perforce. I hear some excuse themselves that they cannot express their meaning, and make a semblance that their heads are so full stuffed with many goodly things, but for want of eloquence they can neither utter nor make show of them. It is a mere foppery. And well you know what, in my seeming, the cause is? They are shadows and chimeras, proceeding of some formless conceptions, which they cannot distinguish or resolve within, and by consequence are not able to produce them inasmuch as they understand not themselves. And if you but mark their earnestness, and how they stammer and labour at the point of their delivery, you would deem

fore nothing near down-lying; and they do but lick that imperfect and shapeless lump of matter. As for me I am of opinion, and Socrates would have it so, that he who hath a clear and lively imagination in his mind may easily produce and utter the same, although it be in Bergamask or Welsh, and if he be dumb, by signs and tokens, *Verbaque praevisam rem non invita sequentur*—

When matters we foreknow,
Words voluntary flow.

"As one said, as poetically in his prose, *cum res animum occupavere, verba ambiunt*: 'When matter hath possessed their minds, they hunt after words'; and another, *Ipsae res verba rapiunt*: 'Things themselves will catch and carry words.' He knows neither ablative, conjunctive, substantive, nor grammar, no more doth his lackey, nor any oyster-wife about the streets, and yet if you have a mind to he will entertain you your fill, and peradventure stumble as little and as seldom against the rules of his tongue as the best master of arts in France.

* * * *

"It is a natural, simple, and unaffected speech that I love, so written as it is spoken, and such upon the paper as it is in the mouth, a pithy, sinewy, full, strong, compendious, and material speech, not so delicate and affected as vehement and piercing. *Haec demum sapient dictio quae feriet*—

In fine, that word is wisely fit,
Which strikes the fence, the mark doth hit.

Rather difficult than tedious, void of affection, free, loose and bold, that every member of it seems to make a body; not pedantical, nor friar-like, nor lawyer-like, but rather down-right, soldier-like."—*Of the Institution and Education of Children*, Florio's translation.

THE REGISTRATION COUNCIL.

By REV. E. HAMMONDS (Chichester).

I was induced to take up this question—at least to open it up for discussion—because, in the copy of correspondence recently published by the Board of Education on a scheme for a new Teachers' Registration Council, proposed at a meeting of the representatives of certain educational associations held last February, I noticed that the Training College Association was neither represented at the meeting, nor was it suggested that the Training Colleges should be in any way represented on the proposed Registration Council. This seemed to me so grave an omission that I wrote to the President-Elect of our Association (now President) to ask if anything could be done.

I do not think it requires many words of mine to commend to you the two resolutions that stand in my name, because I can hardly conceive any serious difference of opinion on the question as to whether the Colleges should be represented or not. If the new system of registration is to be inclusive and not exclusive in its character; if it is to include, as I think it should, all branches of the teaching profession, then it is clear that the Training Colleges, as such, cannot be left out in the cold.

I shall not attempt to discuss the various problems connected with registration, but I will assume that having got rid of the invidious distinctions set up in the last ill-fated Register, the general desire is that we shall obtain a Register pretty much on the lines of the clerical directories, consisting mainly of an alphabetical list of all recognised members of the profession, setting forth in each case the qualifications and experience which have entitled them to a place on the Register. What the exact qualifications should be, is, of course, a matter to be decided by the Registration Council about to be formed.

Having premised so much it is only necessary to set forth some of the reasons for the resolutions I am about to propose.

In the first place, it may be well to notice the action which has so far been taken, and which has ended in an apparent deadlock. I am not speaking from full information, but I notice in the Board's pamphlet of correspondence, to which I have already referred, that in the conference held last February, twelve educational societies or associations were represented by delegates. See Appendix B, p. 21.

The scheme for a Registration Council proposed by this Committee of delegates, and submitted to the Board of Education in March, also given on p. 21.

After this draft scheme had been submitted to the Board of Education a large number of other educational societies applied to the committee claiming to be represented on the Registration Council. The names of these societies and their various claims to be represented are given in the correspondence. No mention, however, is made of the Training College Association.

The next point is that the sub-committee refused to entertain any of these additional applications, and wrote to the Board that they adhered to their original proposals.

Sir Robert Morant's reply, dated November 17th, is extremely interesting. He regretted that the committee were unable to agree together upon any effective amendments to their original scheme which would make the new Council to a greater degree representative of the teaching profession as required by the Act of Parliament. The Board noted with surprise that the committee had shown no inclination to include in their deliberations those other educational societies that had asked for representation, and pressed upon the committee the necessity of modifying their scheme. The Board demurred to the suggestion of the committee that any necessary modifications should be left in the hands

between rival claims. It was for the teaching profession to formulate proposals which should be generally acceptable, and it is clearly the intention of the Board not to sanction any proposals which are not sufficiently representative. This being the condition of affairs, it seems to be most opportune for an Association like ours to put in a claim for representation. It is quite evident, I think, that the new Registration Council cannot be considered sufficiently representative unless it includes such an important section of the profession as the Training Colleges. I have therefore much pleasure in proposing the first part of the resolution.

And with regard to the second half of the resolution, I think it would be difficult to find a stronger claim to recognition for a place on the Register than service in a Training College.

THE HON. MRS. COLBORNE.

During an interval of the Association Meeting, the Hon. Mrs. Colborne was presented with an address and a cheque from the Women's Colleges on her retirement from the service of the Board of Education as Directress of Needlework.

The presentation was made by Miss Manley, who referred to the value of Mrs. Colborne's services, and to the respect and esteem that the Colleges felt for her work and personal qualities. An appreciative reply was given by Mrs. Colborne.

A PEDAGOGICAL MUSEUM.

By DR. PERCY NUNN.

The new building of the London Day Training College (Southampton Row, Holborn) contains a room of considerable size set apart for several useful functions. Along two of the walls are series of glass-topped cases whose contents are intended to justify the name of "Museum," by which the room is known. These will consist in part of a permanent collection illustrative of the history of teaching methods, and, in part, of temporary exhibitions illustrative of special provinces of modern educational practice. (The school journey is the subject of its present exhibition.) But the most important function of the room will be to serve as a "preparation room" for lessons in geography, history and literature. For this purpose it is equipped (beneath the museum cases) with a large number of drawers and cupboards designed of different sizes and shapes, for the convenient storage of a collection of maps, plans and other geographical illustrations, historical and literary portraits, and facsimiles, globes, and models of all kinds. The contents of the drawers and cupboards are catalogued and indexed, so that the student's attention is readily directed to the material illustrative of the lesson he has in hand. The centre of the floor is occupied by flat tables, large enough to permit of the convenient study of a wall map or the large sheets of the Ordnance Survey. With a view to such uses the room is lighted by "inverted arc" electric lamps which yield a brilliant illumination so uniformly diffused that practically no shadows can be formed. It may be added that the museum adjoins the Manual Training Room where are conveniences for the manufacture of models in clay, cardboard, wood, and other materials.

The responsibility for arranging and cataloguing the contents of the Museum is entrusted to post-graduate students under the supervision of a member of the College staff.

PHYSICAL TRAINING IN THE COLLEGES.

By LIEUTENANT F. H. GRENFELL,

Director of Physical Training at Eton College.

Physical training in the restricted sense of educational gymnastics, comprising formal gymnastic exercises, gymnasium games, and practical applications, is an artificial means of training the body and establishing the health. It appears to be necessary for children under modern conditions of education, more especially for those of the poorer classes in large towns who have little or no opportunity for exercise in the open air in favourable surroundings.

The controlling factor in the selection, arrangement, and application of the exercises used in physical training should be the needs of the human body. The effect of every exercise must be correct from the point of view of our present knowledge of anatomy and physiology, and have a direct bearing upon the result at which we aim. The Swedish system of educational gymnastics appears to fulfil these conditions more satisfactorily than any other. This system contains exercises on apparatus and exercises without apparatus—the so-called free standing exercises. The exercises, however, are not classified on these lines, but are grouped solely according to their different physical effects. Apparatus is used to get effects which could not otherwise be obtained; in some cases it makes an exercise harder, in others easier, than the corresponding free standing type of exercise. Thus the employment of apparatus makes possible a more even and extended progression in the training.

A detailed description of the Swedish system can be found in several books—the *Naval Handbook of Physical Training*, and Broman's *School Gymnastics on the Swedish system*, may be mentioned—and I will not

attempt to give one here, as it would occupy too much space. I would rather point to the fact that the Navy, Army, and Board of Education have accepted the system after careful investigation by their medical advisers as the basis of their schemes of physical training.

Since this is the system which the elementary school teachers have to employ, it should be the object of the Training Colleges to make their students familiar with it, and I shall assume, for the sake of argument, that the Training Colleges accept this position.

Some training for the teacher is essential if he is to carry out the physical training of children intelligently, and since it is inevitable that the elementary school teacher must himself do the work, it follows that he must have some training. I do not mean that he should be an expert in physical training, but he should be well grounded in the exercises he is to use and the proper method of applying them, and have an intelligent appreciation of their effects.

Teachers thus trained may be safely entrusted with the practical application to the children of schemes of training devised by experts. These schemes should be quite definite, and leave no more to the initiative of the teacher than his training will reasonably warrant. For example, it is unreasonable to ask him to let his work be guided "by a consideration of principles" (*vide* existing syllabus) of which he can have little knowledge. A syllabus embodying such schemes of work will give the teacher just what he needs, that is, a clear indication of what he has to do with the children; all the difficult problems of progression, etc., having been worked out for him by the expert. It must not, however, be supposed that a syllabus can take the place of training.

It is to be hoped that the new edition of the syllabus will be compiled by those who are real experts in the subject of children's physical training. For this work, an essential qualification is long experience of teaching

the system to children. Fortunately, we have in England those eminently qualified in all respects for the work, and it is earnestly to be hoped that they have it in hand. If entrusted to those without experience of training children, or with merely an academic knowledge of the system, the book will not correspond to the needs of the elementary school teachers and children. Simplification without sacrifice of essentials is only possible for the real expert.

Expert supervision of the physical training in the elementary schools is in the same case with the syllabus; it can only become effective with trained teachers.

In a word, the whole question of efficiency in the physical training of the elementary schools turns upon the provision of teachers trained in what they have to do. It is right, therefore, that every effort should be concentrated upon this, and the Training Colleges are the key of the position.

The Training Colleges certainly appear to have just cause of complaint against the Board's demand for the immediate provision of instruction in physical training on Swedish lines. This can only be given by competent physical training teachers, who are not yet forthcoming. It would be unfortunate to insist upon any definite scheme of instruction until these teachers are available. These remarks apply only to the provision of male physical training teachers, because there should be no difficulty in immediately procuring an adequate number of women teachers. Several Physical Training Colleges in England in the last 20 years have turned out hundreds of women teachers thoroughly trained in the Swedish system—notably Madame Österberg's College in Kent. We have no need to go outside the country for expert women teachers, because the training in Swedish gymnastics many of our women teachers have received is at least equal to anything of the kind abroad, even in Sweden itself. The South-Western Polytechnic also, I believe, has lately adopted the Swedish system for the training of its women gymnastic students.

When expert instruction is available, the course in the Training Colleges should, I think, follow the general lines sketched out below.

The object of the instruction is not to produce experts in physical training, but efficient executants who are capable of conducting the children's physical training lessons in a correct and stimulating manner, who understand what they are about, and can intelligently carry out the directions contained in the syllabus or given them by the supervising expert.

The students' training should have a double purpose; it should be directed towards improving their own physique, and also to forming them as teachers of physical training. A good physical training for the benefit of the students themselves would seem to be very necessary in view of their close and continuous application to mental studies; it is also required to make the students feel the effect of the training in themselves in order to appreciate fully its value to others. The mind may be convinced by an academic study of the subject, but unless the body is a constant reminder of the benefit that may be derived, the impression will soon fade, and their work as teachers will degenerate. The students' personal training will necessarily carry them beyond the point attainable by school children, but in it can be incorporated every exercise the students will subsequently have to teach.

The training of the students to teach physical training should include practical and theoretical instruction. The practical part should consist of constant practice in the teaching of children, which should be considered as by far the most important subject. Let the students meet the difficulties to be encountered in this work while they have some one to show them how these may be overcome. I would insist with all the force at my command that the physical training of children is a complex and difficult business, and can only be mastered by patient practice and observation. If the teacher has

Training College, in most cases he will never wholly master them. It is, therefore, most important that the students should have early and constant opportunity of teaching children under expert supervision.

Interest is the one thing essential to success in the physical training of children, and I am quite confident this cannot be got with free standing exercises alone. A liberal admixture of simple games is wanted, and these should not be without a definite physical purpose, although this must not be apparent to the children. Again, the use of some simple apparatus adds greatly to the variety and interest of the work, and has the additional advantage of providing new and important effects. It is very desirable that elementary schools should be supplied with such apparatus as gymnastic benches, ropes, and jumping lines, and with such inexpensive material for games as balls, bean-bags, etc. It is true that the existing syllabus contains a recommendation that games should form part of every lesson, but the teacher is not told what games to play, and he cannot be expected to evolve them out of his own head. So that the practice and teaching of games should be a regular part of the student's instruction, and it is to be hoped that space will be allotted in the new syllabus for descriptions of appropriate gymnastic games. No great elaboration is needed, as most of them can be described in a few lines.

The student's theoretical instruction should give him a good general idea of the aims and objects of the training, and how they may be realised. It must include some anatomy and physiology treated with special reference to physical training, and an explanation of the principles and technicalities of the system. The correct method of giving commands, and of teaching exercises and correcting faults, etc., should also be taught.

The arrangement of the instruction in anatomy and physiology should present little difficulty, because

incorporated in the Hygiene course with some little expansion and amplification. This could be easily arranged between the teachers of hygiene and physical training. I understand that some of the Provincial centres in Scotland are adopting this arrangement.

In conclusion I would plead that the Board of Education should not consider the training of the students completed when they leave the Colleges. I am confident that after a year or two of battling with the difficulties by themselves the teachers will derive much profit from a vacation course, when the review of old work in the light of practical experience will bring out many new and valuable ideas hitherto unrealised, and where advice may be obtained about individual points of difficulty.

THE BOARD OF EDUCATION AND PRACTISING SCHOOLS.

BY PROFESSOR J. W. ADAMSON.

"It is commonly supposed that experiments in education are not needed, and that Reason alone will enable us to judge whether a thing is or is not good educationally. But this is a great mistake, and experience shows that the consequences of our experiments often turn out quite contrary to our expectations." The conviction thus expressed by Kant has been long in getting itself established as a truth of general concern and acceptance; but the attentive observer of such matters has ample evidence to-day of the wide-spread activity of the scientific experimenter in things educational. Professor Green's article in the first issue of *The Training College Record* collected a good deal of this evidence, and, since that article was written, one or two books of importance have demonstrated the high value, for the student of Education, of properly conducted experiment.

This is not a question of the mere empiricism which attaches itself to so much of education everywhere, and not least in our own country. Its deprecation of "theory" notwithstanding, such empiricism very often rests on *a priori* assumptions which stand much in need of verification. Experimental pedagogy ventures to test such assumptions; the so-called "practical teacher" never does. Nor are the requirements of educational experiment to be satisfied by the administration, as a kind of cathartic to "practical experience," of an independent course of psychology. Too often the psychology employed for this purpose has been quite out of touch with the school-room, and therefore of exceedingly small value to the teacher; or, what was worse, the psychology, being itself chiefly of the *a priori* sort, only served to intensify the evil it was meant to counteract.

The teacher who is to profit from an experimental

problems of instruction, of organization, and so on, and the methods, psychological or otherwise, of grappling with these problems. For the most part, he will also find it necessary to know what kind of questions the psychologist is asking, and how he now tries to answer him; he will then become aware that there are questions that the psychologist asks no longer. Above all, he needs to cultivate a feeling of caution, both with reference to novelties whose newness is their sole recommendation, and also with reference to use and wont, so that he will recognize a fallacy even when it is hoary with age, or commonly regarded as axiomatic.

If knowledge and mental attitude of this kind are to characterize the teacher actively engaged in his profession, it is clear that a beginning should be made during his novitiate in the training college. Do we find any indication of this in the Board of Education's "Regulations for the Training of Teachers"?

'The Board has been at great pains to make known its high appreciation of the experimental method as at once a means of advancing knowledge, and of educating the experimenter. It is true that experiment is considered in the "Regulations" chiefly in relation to the non-professional studies of intending teachers, and that its application to professional studies is conceded rather than insisted on. "*Even on the professional side of the Training College course this principle must be remembered. The necessity for experiment and observation over ever-widening groups of phenomena is the most striking aspect of modern psychological investigation, and the teacher in training will gain much by watching some of the work that is now proceeding in the observation of children.*" ("Regulations," *Prefatory Memorandum*, p. xvii.)

The point being thus conceded, we may therefore expect to find the Board willing to do its best to make the experimental method available as part of the course of training. In particular, we should expect that the

secure for every training college a practising school in such organic connexion with itself, that due correlation of the theoretical instruction with the students' work and observation in that school should be as easily brought about as it is obviously necessary. We should expect that the Board, lacking the ability to effect so close a connexion as this between college and school, but appreciating to the full the peculiar functions of a practising school, would, by regulation or by legislation if necessary, ensure that those functions could be satisfactorily discharged. Local Educational Authorities, following the approved bureaucratic manner, decline altogether to discriminate between practising schools and schools in general. Rules respecting text-books and apparatus, time-tables, the number and standing of teachers, the size of classes and the machinery of school-organization in general which are thought by the Authority, or its officers, to be equally applicable to all the elementary schools of a county or a borough, are strictly imposed upon a school whose business it is in part at least to offer an exercise-ground and an educational laboratory to the intending teachers who practise there.

The language and general outlook of the *Prefatory Memorandum* lead one to expect that the Board would make it unmistakably plain to Local Authorities that the wholesale imposition of rules of this kind renders the experimental method all but impossible in the training of teachers. Nay, more, one is induced to expect that the Board would reserve a large measure of freedom and elasticity to managers of Practising Schools in respect not only of the details of school management, but also in the more important things which concern the character of the teaching staff and the nature of the school's curriculum.

These are legitimate expectations. But, as Kant reminds us, the issue of our inquiries is often quite contrary to what we expected. We turn from the

ness end," and we discover—Appendix F. The authorities of practising schools are there thrown to the wolves with the expressed hope that these won't bite them badly; to make things agreeable all round, the wolves receive a hint or two, that it will be well if they sharpen their teeth.

The view which the Training College Association has taken of this question is fairly represented by a report drawn up by a sub-committee so long ago as 1904. Since that date many representations of a similar nature have been made to the Board by the Association; but hitherto the consequences have not disclosed themselves. The sub-committee's report is as follows:—

"In consequence of recent changes in the administration of public education, this Association desires respectfully to represent to the Board of Education, the exceptional position occupied by the Practising Schools, in order that the usefulness of those schools to the public service may be maintained. The Association regards these schools as, first and foremost, places of education for the children attending them, and no one is more anxious that that character should be preserved to them in all circumstances; but as an indispensable part of the organization for the training of teachers, Practising Schools differ in several respects from schools not so used.

"Their special function calls for exceptional treatment of those schools in respect of staffing, curricula and equipment. For example, their teachers should be appointed not merely for ability to discharge the usual duties of the school-room, but, in addition, for their fitness to co-operate with the Training College in conducting the technical instruction of the student-teachers. Again, text-books, apparatus, furniture, and equipment generally, which may very sufficiently meet the needs of an ordinary school, may be inade-

quate or unsuitable, when made to serve the various purposes of an institution which is also, in a measure, an educational laboratory. Further, it is of the highest importance that a field should be reserved wherein experiments in method and curriculum may be tried under expert direction; such experiments might be much hindered, or even rendered impossible, if all the minute regulations as to curricula and time-tables were made to apply equally to the Practising Schools as to all other schools.

“This applies with special force in those cases where Practising Schools have been provided by the Training College Authorities to enable them to carry out the training of students more efficiently in accordance with the directions of the Board of Education. These schools will fail in the specific purpose for which they exist, if it is not possible to co-ordinate the methods of practical teaching as given in the lecture-room with the actual methods carried out in the school.

“The best judges of a Practising School’s requirements in these and the like matters are those who deal at first hand with the problem of training persons to teach. In the general interests of Education, therefore, the Association begs to suggest that a large measure of discretion and control in respect of the staffing, equipment and curricula of Practising Schools should be given to the responsible authorities of Training Colleges, acting in concert with H.M. Inspectors especially engaged in Training College inspection. It is not for this Association to indicate the manner in which such discretion and control might be secured; but in as much as the Board of Education exercises authority over all Training Colleges, by way of its ‘Regulations,’ and otherwise, it may be possible to frame a further regulation, or regulations, having that

The Association does not ask that the children who are being taught in Practising Schools shall be sacrificed to the students who practise there. As all who know these things from the inside are aware, the Practising School, regarded as a place of instruction, has a balance of advantage over most schools in the stimulus which comes from the students’ presence and work. When a practising school ceases to be a true school for the children in attendance, it ceases *ipso facto* to be a place where intending teachers can be usefully trained. It is to the interest of all concerned that practising schools should be maintained in a state of full efficiency as places of education.

Since the above report was written, the Association has pointed out that a circular letter from the Board to Educational Authorities might do much to place practising schools in a position more favourable to the discharge of their proper duties. It would seem that this end would be even better attained, if the Board’s *Code and Regulations for the Training of Teachers* were to include paragraphs enabling such schools to justify the name they bear. The Association has more than once suggested that, when an Education Bill is drafted, a clause be inserted giving such schools a certain measure of administrative and financial independence.

One gratefully recognizes the good intentions of the Board as stated in the *Prefatory Memorandum*; but so long as these are nullified by the policy laid down in Appendix F, the Board is in the position of praising a course of action which is excellent—if pursued by somebody else. Training Colleges are continually being advised or compelled to do things which cost nothing to anybody but themselves. Here is an opportunity for the Board to carry out its own good counsels at its own proper charges.

EXPERIMENT IN EDUCATION.

By PROFESSOR J. A. GREEN.

In briefly recalling some of the work that has been done during the last year, it is necessary to keep in mind the distinction in type which must characterise all pedagogic investigation—the difference, that is to say, between the analytic and synthetic method of approach. Characteristic of the latter method is that which is being carried on under the guidance of Professor Findlay in Manchester, whose *Demonstration School Record* appeared early in the year. Here the aim is primarily one of organisation. Starting with certain *à priori* principles, much pedagogic skill is being applied to the problem of curriculum. The inspiring note, from the kindergarten upwards, is that of social service. In mutual helpfulness the atmosphere of home is kept up, and parental activities with which the child is familiar occupy his attention in a practical way at school. So far as possible, Fröbelian symbolism is abandoned. The children build with real bricks and real mortar, they weave with actual weaving materials, they sow and reap actual corn.

The Chicago work of Dr. Dewey is being tentatively followed, and the principle of culture epochs is provisionally accepted as a guide in the working out of a curriculum. It is hardly necessary to point out the twofold danger involved in adopting such a principle. The culture epochs we assume may not correspond to actual facts. The precision with which enthusiastic disciples of Ziller have described the steps in man's advance from primitive savagery to American citizenship has brought not a little discredit on the theory, as applied to the problem of the school curriculum. And there is again the danger of forgetting the short-cuts by which development in the individual avoids the many turnings and byways which the stress of haphazard circumstance has inflicted on the race. Once mind appears in the

throw the gravest doubts upon any very serious application of the principle to the case of children at school. Professor Dewey surely neglected present-day demands and present-day influences. In Manchester they are not losing sight of the fact that it is the out-of-school life of the child that is the chief factor in his development, and that the function of the school is at once to enlarge and interpret that life. The curriculum is not in the air, and systematic attention is given to the formal arts of arithmetic and writing and special investigations are being made in the methodology of arithmetic and reading, the results of which we shall look for with interest in later volumes of the *Record*.

It is not possible in a short miscellaneous article to do justice to this pioneer volume. I may question pre-suppositions like the theory of culture epochs and the theory of concentration, and even if I were ready to surrender my soul to them, I might still cavil at the particular way in which the theory is worked into a scheme of study, but I cannot deny the suggestive value of the book. And, after all, the Manchester workers could desire nothing better than to be a source of professional inspiration. There can be no finality in constructive work in any department of life, least of all in teaching. For us to forget this, is to hark back to the times when "normal" schools and colleges were invented and young men and women went there to learn methods. The "master of method" still survives in name, but we may hope that he has long outgrown his titular origin and that he is chiefly concerned in imparting points of view, in establishing fundamental principles, and, above all, in leading his students to realise the variety and individuality which characterises good teaching.

Of other work that has appeared in English during the year, probably the most important is that on the Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading, by Professor Huey. As its title suggests, the book begins with an

cess. The author has himself done much to overcome the difficulties encountered in the investigation, especially that part of it connected with the movements of the eye, so that we might expect a thorough treatment of the whole subject at his hands. He gives an admirable critical summary of other men's work, showing in the clearest possible way that we do not read literally, that we recognise our words as wholes having characteristic outlines, and that methods of teaching which insist too much upon analysis and letter values, set up hindrances to rapidity and effectiveness later on. When we accept his definition of reading as the art of getting the meaning out of a printed page, we shall probably be prepared to drop much that is typical in our present methods of teaching to read.

The most important event in connection with the new movement has been the appearance of Professor Meumann's *Vorlesungen zur Einführung in die Experimentelle Pädagogik*, which, though published in 1907, came to me too late for discussion in the last issue of the *Record*. Two large volumes, each containing five hundred pages, are not easily mastered, in spite of the relative clearness and fluency of the author's style. As one reads them, the advantages of compression and of occasionally taking things for granted suggest themselves over and over again. In characteristic German fashion, Professor Meumann is nothing if not thorough. If he is writing about the pedagogy of reading and the investigations of physiologist and psychologist in connection therewith, he must start from the beginning and tell us the story of Pestalozzi's researches and then we must have an account of practical methods—alphabetic, phonic, etc.—all of which might have been spared us. Probably every chapter would gain by being shortened. Perhaps the German student is a better hand at skipping than the Englishman, though one would expect his thrifty soul to welcome smaller books at lower prices.

The first volume is in the main analytic. Each

done and suggestions for future investigation. The point of view that characterises the book is laid down in the preface. "Pedagogy is neither applied psychology, nor applied ethics, nor logic, nor anything of the kind. It is indisputably an independent science whose future 'depends on the creation of opportunities for experiment' and the methodical training of persons capable of research in this field. The need for pedagogico-psychological laboratories is absolute. But as critics have already pointed out, the laboratory cannot solve the question. The synthetic processes of the school are the final subject of investigation, and unless the laboratory and the school work in intimate connection the results will probably be barren in the extreme. The psychologist may draw certain pedagogical conclusions from his results, but such conclusions are not final. They are not more than guides to new researches which must be carried out in the classroom.

Taking his start from the principle that the child is the centre of interest in all pedagogical problems, Professor Meumann suggests the following outline as fairly covering the field of work to be undertaken:—

1. Enquiry into the intellectual and physical development of the school-child.
 - (a) The periodicity of this development—regular and irregular advance.
 - (b) The relation between the physical and intellectual development of the child—is the development of the one side parallel with that of the other?
 - (c) Characteristic differences between normal children of various ages and adults.
 - (d) Variations of individual children from the normal line of development (precocious and backward children).
2. Development of the various intellectual powers of the child—memory, imagination, etc.
3. The study of individuality in children.

5. The attitude of the child to his schoolwork, including—
 - (a) The technique of schoolwork, for example, the question of economy in the method of learning by heart.
 - (b) The hygiene of schoolwork for pupils and teachers; of special importance under this head is the subject of fatigue.
 - (c) The relative value of work at school and work at home.
6. The question of methods of teaching in the various school subjects. In arithmetic, for example, what is the truth in respect of so-called concrete methods of approach? Are they really so helpful as to justify the variety of objective illustration commonly employed?
7. The teacher's own activities, a subject on which "the results of enquiries so far give little to say."

Two things are to be noted in this programme. In the first place, as the author is careful to state, there are some questions which the teacher has to face that cannot be treated experimentally. The question of the ultimate aim of education is one that in the long run society itself must settle for the teacher, though this does not deprive the teacher of his right to do all in his power to influence contemporary thought on the matter. Similarly, experiment will not help a teacher who is free, to decide whether he shall teach European history, or whether he shall make a strong point of chronology in his course. In such cases the goal he is making for will be settled by his view of the subject itself and its bearing on the final purpose of education as he sees it.

In the second place, the programme probably errs in over-emphasising analysis. From the practical standpoint the seventh item in the programme is not the least important, though it is a departure from the original principle, viz., that it is the child who is the starting

point of the problem. Any theory of teaching practice which left the teacher's personality and actions out of account would be lamentably inadequate. In the past we have fixed our attention upon the teacher. Our "method" books, for the most part, contain nothing but directions for his use. In the new movement, the danger of passing to the other extreme is not to be overlooked.

A comparison of Professor Meumann's programme with that sketched by Professor Findlay in a paper on "Scientific Method in the Study of Education" will bring out the relatively restricted outlook of the former. It is concerned with the problem in its psychological aspects. The comparative study of curricula such as in one department we may base upon Professor Sadler's volumes on *Moral Education*, or of the administration and control of educational institutions, both constitute important branches of the subject that lie outside the sphere of experiment.

Space forbids a detailed analysis of the various lectures in Professor Meumann's volumes. The problems he discusses are of the most far-reaching importance, often shaking our faith in the presuppositions on which a lifelong teaching practice has been based. For in this regard we may note that it is no proof of the economy or of the correctness of our methods to say that children have successfully learned things at our hands. Happily our children have it in them to learn in spite of mistaken procedure. We are all familiar with the stray who unexpectedly reveals himself and puzzles or annoys his teacher. May not the systematic study of the "stupid child" reveal errors in our practice which are hidden by its apparent success in the majority of cases? Every day, for example, we find teachers offending against the economy and technique of learning by heart in requiring their pupils to commit a poem to memory stanza by stanza or line by line. Finally the children accomplish the task, but the result is uncertain in some and very fleeting in most cases. We may comfortably put this

down to differences in "brain plasticity" or to some other equally hypothetical cause, or we may study the mistakes that occur in reproduction and discover that our procedure actually encourages the formation of numerous series of connected muscular movements which have to be broken up again before the whole piece can be fluently reproduced. When a child, for instance, repeats a particular stanza over and over again he links up the last with the first words of the same stanza instead of with those of the next, and in this way sets up physiological difficulties to overcome which costs both time and energy, and in the end the result is less certain and less permanent than if such difficulties had been reduced to a minimum or avoided altogether.

The teaching of drawing, of reading and of arithmetic form the subjects of three most instructive chapters, not always by reason of the positive results arrived at, but rather on account of the rigorous psychological analysis of the complex process themselves, thereby suggesting methods of individual and collective experiment which may in the future throw light upon the teacher's procedure. It is always the child's attitude towards the subject that is the object of search. Thus, following Pestalozzi, we have for a century supposed that the abstract notion of number was best reached by the child if we furnished him with abundant and varied concrete illustration. This idea neglects the part which the sense of time has been shown to play in our notions of number. When I think of sixty-two and try to realise it, my first impulse is to measure it by the time it would take me to count as many. I certainly do not find myself spontaneously arranging it in groups or figures of any kind, though individual variation is in this respect considerable. Space relations develop much earlier in the child's consciousness than time relations, the appreciation of which appears to synchronise with and to develop along with his growing appreciation of number. It is certain, in any case, that we may easily overdo the concrete illus-

is one of interest and importance and, further, one which lends itself to experimental treatment as Waisemann and Lay have shown.

Amongst the more strictly psychological topics, none is of greater interest than that of tests for capacity. What a gain it would be if we could find some method of estimating the potentials of our individual pupils! Binet in France and de Sanctis in Italy have devoted a great deal of attention to the subject. Every issue of the *Année Psychologique* shows Binet's continued interest in it, particularly from the point of view of defective and abnormal children. In discussing their work and that of many other less well known psychologists, Meumann arrives at the conclusion that all methods which employ isolated tests are useless. In the Karlsruhe Training College, I remember one of the teachers showing me two closed tin cylinders alike in every respect, except that of size. These he used as a test of mental power and he found that the clever children, on taking the cylinders in their hands, always said the smaller cylinder was the heavier! His demonstration with a number of children from the practising school was unsuccessful—perhaps the presence of a curious stranger interfered with the normal working of the children's minds. Devices of the kind savour of quackery. They do not rest upon analysis, which is not less important in psychological than in any other form of experimental enquiry. Acceptable tests of intelligence must be presented in a graduated series, every step in the series must be applied to a particular activity, and the series as a whole must give a more or less complete picture of the individual on his receptive and on his responsive sides.

As indicating the sort of thing which appeals to Meumann, I may quote the series of tests devised by De Sanctis for estimating various grades of feeble-mindedness in children:—

1. From a group of six balls of different colours the

2. The balls are mixed up again under cover, and the child is asked to point out the one he selected previously.
3. In a group of objects composed of five Fröbelian cubes, three balls and two pyramids, the teacher points to one and asks the child to point to another like it.
4. Triangles, right angles, and squares drawn in black upon a sheet of cardboard are presented to the child and he is asked to point with a pencil to those figures which seem to him like the cubes of the previous exercise.
5. Twelve cubes of different sizes are placed on a table at varying distances from the child and he is asked how many there are, which one is the largest and which one is furthest away.
6. The cubes are covered up and the child is asked—
 - (a) Which are the heavier, the large or the small things.
 - (b) If (a) is correctly answered, why are small things sometimes heavier than large ones?
 - (c) Which looked bigger—the things near to you or the things far away?
 - (d) Did they seem so only, or were they really so?

For purposes of comparison various notes are taken in the course of the enquiry—*e.g.*, of the time taken to do the things required in the first five tests, and of the errors made in tests 4 and 5. The child who gives an intelligent answer to question 6 (d) cannot be regarded as intellectually defective, the author of the series thinks.

There is much in the book that will meet with strong opposition from practical teachers and some Herbartians will not view with favour the general leaning which Meumann shows towards formal training. A striking instance of the unorthodox attitude taken up is that in which fairy stories are condemned. Meumann objects

time relations by children, and the over-stimulation of ideation in the realm of the “unreal,” already sufficiently provided for by the instability of the connections between idea and reality in the child mind.

But enough has been said to indicate the varied and interesting nature of the contents of Professor Meumann's volumes, which are a monument of learning, of industry and of devotion to a cause which German teachers themselves are doing much to help on. They have, for example, just set up and undertaken to maintain a laboratory in Leipzig—the classical home of Experimental Psychology. The Teachers' Association of that city, assisted by the larger association of Saxony, has spent £600 on the necessary equipment and stands as guarantor for an annual expenditure of anything from £150 to £200. The Institute has eight rooms—a lecture room that will seat a hundred, a smaller lecture room, a dark room, and five rooms fitted up for experimental work. The spirit underlying all this is well expressed in the speech of the president of the Teachers' Association of Saxony, an invited guest at the official opening of the new institution. “These institutions constitute the intellectual weapons of the German teachers. They prove that we are not primarily concerned with the economic prospects of the teaching profession, but that we are, above all things else, interested in the question of the thoroughness of the scientific training which membership of that profession shall imply.”

It is not possible in a short article to do more than indicate what is being done in this relatively new field of research. The movement has not received universal approbation. Indeed, German Herbartians assembled in Magdeburg have expressed their strong dissent. Meanwhile in our country, the British Association (Section L) has appointed a Committee under the chairmanship of Professor Findlay to consider and report upon the methods and results of research into the physical and mental factors involved in Education.

THE ART OF STORY-TELLING.

By PRINCIPAL BURRELL.

The present paper aims at being entirely practical. It will, as far as the writer can do so, reveal the secrets of the prison-house; and though it is not usual for people to give away secrets, I am quite ready, at the invitation of the Editor, to say all I know. It is not much.

My only claim to write upon the subject at all is based on this, that for the past twenty years and more I have, as a Professional Story-teller, stood before audiences in many of the larger towns and cities of England. Audiences of all sorts and sizes and ages have convinced me, if ever I needed convincing, of the delight that still accompanies the told story, as distinct from the recitation, a delight as great to the teller as to the listener.

There appears to be a revival, or an attempt at a revival, of the art. It is one of our new experiments. Perhaps, therefore, no time need be wasted in laying stress on its importance to the teacher at every turn of his life, in every classroom that he visits.

There are no books upon the subject; scarcely are there any intentional references to it. The art has been and is so widespread, so common in every town, village, home, that nobody has thought it worth while to treat it seriously. Yet, a moment's reflection shows any reader that it must be the oldest art in the world; and, indeed, as a constantly practised profession, story-telling has yielded but lately to the printing press in the town and the cheap lamp in country districts. The halfpenny newspaper and artificial light have killed the Professional Story-teller. The Reciter, a very different article, flourishes.

The most striking examples of the art in the Old Testament occur in the history of Joseph and in the tragic stories of Nathan and Jotham. The New Testa-

means of education; and it is startling and humiliating to think that, with the numberless references to the parabolic method and to its importance before them, the clergy and ministers of all denominations consistently and consciously disregard what they know to have been the method, the particular and peculiar method of Him whom regularly they appeal to as the Great Teacher. Neither at street corners, nor in mission rooms, nor in hospitals, nor in Sunday schools, nor in pulpits do we find any attempt whatever to ransack the wealth of literature, home and foreign, modern and ancient, in order that this method of Jesus may even be tried. (I have asked the Editor to italicise the foregoing words; if I could have written more bluntly on the matter I would have done so.) To the objections that the method is Oriental, that suitable stories do not exist, that we cannot tell them well enough, there is but one reply: *the method was the method of Jesus*. Moreover, the Western world is just as much fascinated by the Story as the Eastern; suitable stories exist by the score, and the art is one that at any rate can be practised. St. Paul has killed the Parable.

In profane literature Herodotus' history (*passim*) and Plato's dialogues, not only contain admirable stories, but point to the value of the story as a means of impressing an audience; the "Aeneid" tells us of Aeneas' long narrative, the "Odyssey" of the story-telling of Odysseus. With or without music the story flourished all through the early and middle ages, and "Aucassin et Nicolette" is only one of the masterpieces. A copious list of medieval books will be found in Professor Schofield's "English Literature from the Norman Conquest to Chaucer" (Macmillan, 6s.), while Aesop (never yet fully translated and purchaseable for 9d.), Pilpay, the "Gesta Romanorum" and Dunlop's "History of Fiction" are full of adaptable work. But they are mentioned here merely to show the long ancestry which this art can boast. Mr. E. S. Hartland in his "Science of Fiction" mentions some of the few writers who refers to

definite descriptions of story-tellers. He quotes from Burton's "Nights" (x., 163), von Hahn ("Greek and Albanian Stories"), Mrs. F. A. Steele ("Legends of the Punjab") and Pitrè's "Library of Sicilian Popular Traditions," as well as from H. F. Luzel's "Veillées," and brings the modern story-teller before us, entrancing his crowds. (All these books are in the British Museum; Pitrè in Italian, von Hahn in German.)

Perhaps it is unnecessary to say that we do not yet in England recognise story-telling as an art, though there must be thousands of people who excel in it, without knowing their excellence. By those who believe in it the following claims (preposterous though they seem) are gravely put forward:—

That it is one of the best ways known to man of teaching and training the young.

That it discourages (in this nation at least) all sham passion, all exaggeration, all taught "expression"; and that it encourages simplicity and honesty of thought and voice.

That it interprets literature and leads to a real love of literature.

That it finds out and develops the beautiful, the quiet, the artistic side of a child's life and is in deadly opposition to all that is bold, blatant, coarse and vulgar.

That it demands from teachers and from children who practise it a great deal of memorising of fine passages which remain a perpetual treasure.

Perhaps this is the place to enumerate some of the objections which are put forward whenever anyone wishes to start a Story-telling Club. We are told that the power to tell a story well is a gift, and that it cannot be acquired. The obvious reply is that it is a gift, to nine children out of ten; and that being uncultivated, it lapses. We are further told that young adults are too nervous, or too self-conscious to make the attempt. To this the reply should be that the value of story-telling

(not) told that all teachers think they possess the power. The reply to this is that, if they would listen to a first-class story-teller, the majority would discover that there was something still to learn.

The general rules to be observed are as follows, whether stories are told for adults or for children, or by children:—

1. A Common Place Book, quite large, must be kept constantly at hand. Even if stories are not entered as the student comes across them, a careful reference, indexed twice, should be made. A story may often be thus recaptured after many years.

2. Stories should, as a rule, be good in workmanship. Slovenly writing always shows itself under the high light of the voice. The "Crucifix" (J. P. Richter), the "King's Evil" (L. Housman), the "Black Bull of Norway" (polished by generations of story-tellers), the stories in the books of F. W. Bain (James Parker & Co.) show examples of this literary polish. Even children are quick to recognise it.

3. Stories should be unhackneyed. Although Red Riding Hood and Jack and the Beanstalk are very well in the first stages and are very well indeed, if thoroughly illustrated, in later stages, still unhackneyed work repays the teller ten times over. An hour spent with Luzel, Gonzenbach, and Julius Wolff is a revelation to one who knows only Grimm, Andersen and Perrault. The same is true of adult work. It is much better to put aside Mark Twain and Dickens (only because they are hackneyed) and to take up Cable and Daudet, Coppée and Miss Wilkins.

4. Stories should suit the teller. There is a something in each good story-teller which differentiates him from others equally good: he is therefore the best judge of work suitable to himself. This is said notwithstanding the fact that a list of stories is added by the writer.

5. Whenever necessary, either for children or for adults, the story should be 'cooked.' By this vandal statement is merely meant that the teller should not be afraid of cutting out a line or two and modifying a phrase or two. For instance, no story-teller should give the last lines in the stories from the "Digit of the Moon" (F. W. Bain) or the "Happy Prince" (O. Wilde). From his point of view they are inartistic and absolutely harmful.

6. Moralising should be avoided. Morals, if required, should be hinted at. Krummacker's "Parabeln" seem to err in this direction, as do many modern books too numerous to mention. As an example of admirable restraint the "Golden Windows" of Miss L. Richards may be mentioned. *All books attempting to teach morals directly in the story should (in the writer's opinion) be shunned like the plague.*

7. Practising work (including close memorising) should be done privately, without any fear of interruption. A locked room at the top of the house, where the student can cry aloud and growl and sob (artistically or actually) is much to be desired; interruption during practice is fatal to improvement.

8. All practising should be done within reach of a full length mirror. A slip of glass can be bought for a few shillings. No one knows how bad his gestures can be till the mirror has reflected them.

9. Voice-study (*i.e.*, the study of the effects produced by the story-teller's own voice) should be unintermittent. Plato is said to have written the first sentence of the "Republic" ten times before he was satisfied with the rhythm of it. Voice-rhythm requires equal patience; but the voice is its own interpreter.

10. A candid friend (if obtainable) is of great use. He must be encouraged to speak out and must never be argued with. All that he says must be considered

when large audiences face the story-teller. No story-teller ever yet knew, in the early days of his art, whether or no he was audible everywhere, restful, at ease, too loud, self-effacing.

11. The last word hints at the Golden Rule. Unlike the reciter, the true story-teller must be self-effacing. *It is the story that matters.* Any trick, advertisement, or bombast that brings the teller of the story violently to the front, must be ruthlessly uprooted.

The foregoing are general rules applicable to all story-telling, all story-tellers; the remarks that follow deal particularly with stories for children, stories by children, and adult stories.

In stories for children, it is better to choose work of some length (the teaching of the "Arabian Nights" in this matter is true). This does not mean that the stories are not to be varied; but a connection by light links is useful. The characters thus become heroes of a loosely constructed epic.

There are great possibilities in the way of lantern illustration. By those who like to take the trouble, a day lantern (*i.e.*, one showing pictures even in a sunlit room) may quite easily be set up: though why such a thing is not listed in catalogues is a marvel. By others an ordinary lantern may be used—but this demands dark or a darkened room.

There is hardly any slide-work in the market worth showing to children (though scientific and geographical slides are admirable). Story-tellers should give them of their best in story and picture. Slides for hire or sale (in story work) are about forty years old; they are disgraceful. The slide-makers are not yet awake to the necessity of employing and paying artists. Therefore the story-teller must get his own artist and explain what is wanted. It is well to get slides made at home, if the pocket has to be considered. Very rarely do publishers give permission for much

of profuse illustration of particular stories that would tempt the story-teller to ask for permission or to pay a fee.

Occasionally the story-tellers may "make up" in dress or face. This is more certain of result when women are the story-tellers. A girl telling French, American, Japanese and Indian tales on one and the same evening may almost convince even an adult audience that four story-tellers have been upon the platform. This and the foregoing suggestion (*i.e.*, that good pictures should be shown) are comparatively new; there is a considerable opening for clever young women in this direction.

Pictures, if good (and these are the only pictures worth showing), should as a rule be shown when the story is over. To tell the story and to show the picture at once is to spoil story and picture; besides this, for children, it works the brain too hard. When comic stories, the literary character of which is not so important, are told, the pictures and the story may go *pari passu*. All loud clickings and conversations with the operator are to be avoided. Applause should never be checked.

A few sources are here added and a few names of books and particular tales.

Newspapers, magazines, and the conversation of friends are admirable sources. Foreign magazines cannot be neglected and old numbers of *S. Nicholas*, *Harper*, *Aunt Judy*, *the Strand*, and countless others may be found under *Per* (Periodicals) in the British Museum. Newspaper stories have usually to be worked into form; unnumbered gems pass into oblivion, skilfully prepared for the unwatchful story-teller by the lightning journalist.

In addition to the Grimms and Andersens and D'Aulnoy and Perrault and the Andrew Lang books which all know, the following contain, sometimes at long intervals, fine work:—J. Jacobs, "*Fairy Tales*" (4 vols., D. Nutt, 3s. 6d. each); Bain, "*Turkish and*

Roumanian Tales" (Lawrence and Bullen, 6s. each); Frank Stockton, "*The Floating Prince*" and "*Ting-a-ling*" tales; M. A. Owen, "*Old Rabbit the Voodoo*" (Fisher Unwin); J. C. Harris, "*Uncle Remus*" and its sequel; Croker's "*Irish Fairy Tales*"; W. B. Yeats, "*Fairy and Folk Tales*" (W. Scott, 1s. 6d.); E. S. Hartland, "*English Folk Tales*" (W. Scott, 1s. 6d.); Laurence Housman, 4 vols. of tales, exquisitely told (Kegan Paul and Trench, 3s. 6d. each); E. Nesbit's stories; W. D. Campbell, "*Beyond the Border*" (Constable); M. Peacock, "*Lincolnshire Tales*" (Simpkin Marshall); T. Vernalcken, "*In the Land of Marvels*" (Swan Sonnenschein); Mr. D. Nutt (see his catalogues) publishes Australian, Maori and other Folk Tales. A mine of stories is the great French collection, "*Littérature de Toutes les Nations*" (30 vols, and more, of which perhaps Bladé, Sebillot, Weckerlin, and Luzel compile the most useful—Paris, 7 fr. 50 c. each). The publications of the Folk Lore Society and the great folk-lorists such as Clodd and Clouston may, with caution, be consulted. Mrs. F. A. Steel and, of course, Rudyard Kipling supply some few stories, and the former in "*Tales from the Punjab*" gives scientific notes and a bibliography. The best bibliography I know is that added to E. S. Hartland's "*Science of Fairy Tales*," an invaluable book (W. Scott, 3s. 6d.).

For historical or semi-historical tales and for tales founded on great literary work, the following names may be consulted in a good catalogue:—A. J. Church, W. Wagner, Alice Pollard, C. Yonge; Mr. Arnold of Leeds has an admirable A. L. series (4d. each), and our debt to W. T. Stead ("*Penny Books for the Bairns*") is undoubted; Messrs. T. and E. Jack's new books are very popular; and the great old works, Froissart, the "*Mabinogion*" (Lady C. Guest), and North's "*Plutarch*" are full of material. Mrs. Clement Parsons has published for the Parents' Union an exhaustive list of children's books (6d.).

It must be understood that very often a book con-

tains one or at most two stories suitable for the teller, though on reading the whole of the book may be excellent.

Story-telling for adults requires of course some modification of the foregoing suggestions. The lantern is next to impossible; the mere tale of wonder is out of place, and comedy, unnecessary for children, is a *sine qua non*. On the whole (I can speak only of my own experiences) adult audiences are not so quiet as the children, and consequently do not give the story-teller so much chance to use his voice rightly. (I must except from this a working-man audience, the best in existence). It is well for the story-teller to remember that, in an adult audience he has fewer critics than in a child audience, but a greater number of cynics; and it is well if he can catch one or two understanding faces and tell his stories *at them*. The problem as regards audibility, room-acoustics, and voice management are the same in both cases and the candid friend is required here also. The rule in regard to self-effacement is, if possible, more important now; it is taken as a compliment by an adult and half-blasé audience (who have seen so many self-advertisements on platforms) to be assured that they are invited to attend to the story and not to the teller. Here too, one must not forget the rule, so often disregarded on the stage, that power, passion, comedy must be held in reserve; the audience must be invited to bring forth some of *their* power, passion and comedy, and where platform and audience meet the spark glows. There is no mistaking it; the room is different from the moment of that psychal spark and the story has won the day.

It is useful for the story-teller to pigeon-hole his stories and to label them, mentally, in some such way as this: narrative, literary, æsthetic, didactic and parabolic, horrific, humorous; it will be found that these heads cover nearly all that is worth telling. Subdivisions of course there may be: humorous stories

Stockton and E. V. Lucas to the anecdotes which each sex tells to its own little circle in the absence of the enemy and of the children.

For sources there may be recommended the heavier English magazines, Harper's, the monthly illustrated magazines, weekly papers like the "Westminster Gazette," an occasional "Truth" story; books full of anecdotes now and then contain a new story; "Reminiscences" and biographies of humorous divines, of judges, of H.M. Inspectors, of actors and actresses and showmen, and of all who work in the public eye must be consulted; and soldiers, travellers and seamen (when seamen like Pierre Loti and F. T. Bullen can be prevailed on to talk) supply fine work. Among many others may be recommended (always to be used with caution) W. W. Jacobs, Pett Ridge, Tighe Hopkins, Keighley Snowden, Eden Philpotts and the great R.L.S., all writers of the *conte*; Pierre Loti, François Coppée (the incomparable "Sunset" being easily first among his tales), Daudet, a master in all branches; Catulle Mendès ("Pour Lire au Couvent"); de Maupassant (in four stories at least); Julius Wolff ("Märchen"); and, if not too antiquated, Zschokke. The "Littératures de Toutes les Nations" and the Folk Lore publications are naturally valuable, and Pitre's "Sicilian Popular Traditions" (20 vols?) full of out-of-the-way lore; Lady Wilde and Mrs. Jameson deal with legends and charms; the horrific is found everywhere, though the palm for it must be given to the marvellous Lafcadio Hearn (*passim*) and to Marion Crawford ("The Upper Berth"), W. W. Jacobs ("The Monkey's Paw"), to W. H. Mallock ("The Ride of the Dead"), possibly to Q. ("The Haunted Dragoon") and to Lytton ("The Haunter and the Haunted"). H. A. Giles ("Strange Stories from a Chinese Studio") touches the comic-horrific. Parabolic literature has to be sought for up and down in all countries; and half the authorities mentioned in the preface to the last edition of Dean Thompson's "Parables" are scarcely from our point of

view, worth searching. Yet parabolic work is of immense importance and it is worth while to hunt through J. P. Richter, F. W. Bain, Fiona MacLeod, the Buddhist Jātakas and Hebrew Literature from the Talmud onward; for the searcher will be rewarded with occasional finds. The immortal Sadi, along with many other Easterns, is strong meat; but Robinson's "Persian Poets" (o.p.) has at least three stories in it. I know of no modern parabolic work except that of Miss L. Richards ("The Golden Windows"); Mr. Crosland is too obscure. Oriental literature, however, is didactic enough; translations of numerous works exist; and the Oriental mystic is the best tale-weaver in the world. C. Sorabji ("Between the Twilights") writes at least one admirable story, and Knowles' "Folk Tales of Kashmir" contains that remarkable double-barrelled tale "Metempsychosis." Lastly, to leave the parable, one cannot ever forget the inimitable work of Cable ("Old Creole Days," etc.), Miss Wilkins ("Understudies," "A New England Prophet," and many other books), Frank Stockton ("The Widow's Cruise," the "Tale of Negative Gravity," the "Story of Assisted Fate," the "Giant's Quilt" and a dozen more), and many other American writers.

One might write on for ever; and it is to be hoped that this roughly practical paper will produce long lists of suitable stories which, no doubt, our kindly Editor* will publish. Only by co-operation can a good list of books and tales be made; and, if we really wish to further the revival of story-telling, we ought to be willing to publish our treasure-trove.

The experiences of a Story-telling Club-manager would be also welcome; and would help materially all those who wish to revive a refining and fascinating study.

I must apologise for the personal note in the paper; I can but give my own confession of faith.

* The Editor will be glad to print in the Autumn Number any lists sent to him.

THE TEACHING OF HYGIENE IN TRAINING COLLEGES.

By H. H. HULBERT, M.A.(Oxon.), M.R.C.S., L.R.C.P., etc.,
*Lecturer to London Day Training College, Graystoke Place Training College, etc.,
and to the University of London.*

The Board of Education has now definitely stated that they expect students-in-training to be instructed in hygiene so thoroughly that they shall possess a "health conscience." It behoves, then, all those who are interested in the practical details of the training as a whole, and more especially those who are engaged in teaching subjects which are included under the title of hygiene, to ponder upon the ways and means of complying with the regulations regarding this latter subject.

The main difficulty is, of course, the fact that the time-table is already overcharged and the mere mention of an extra subject makes a teaching staff shudder.

The syllabus of hygiene issued by the Board of Education is a very comprehensive one, in which, from the point of view of hygiene generally, one can scarcely urge that any item be omitted; but it is so long and comprehensive that when treated as an extra subject in the Training Colleges we fear the general result will be a mere smattering of the subject, quite incapable of producing the "health conscience" so much desired by the Board of Education. It seems to me that this "health conscience" can only be the outcome of a complete training, both theoretical and practical, in the main principles of hygiene.

School hygiene should be confined entirely to those principles which bear very decidedly and directly upon the relationship of teacher and taught in the school-room and the play-ground. From the Board of Education syllabus the following then might easily be eliminated:

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—The place of man in the animal kingdom in Lecture I.; the duties of the individual in relation to the health of the community in Lecture X.—these scarcely belong to school hygiene. First-aid, mentioned in Lecture XII., can only be taught effectively by a series of twelve lectures, and should be taught quite apart from school hygiene. The subjects mentioned in Lecture XII. belong to the medical inspector, not to the teacher, and the same may be said of the sections in Lecture IX. dealing with sites, soils, buildings, water-supply and sanitation.

The syllabus as a whole lies altogether outside the range of what is possible in a Training College. Further, it is not well-balanced and might be called a theoretical and not a practical syllabus. Indeed, it is only too evident to a practical teacher of the subject that it has been drawn up by authorities who had no experience in the actual handling of the subject in Training Colleges.

Perhaps it would be well to say here that I have had more than six years' experience in teaching school hygiene in the London Day Training College and other Training Colleges, and the practical outcome of my experience is that the subject of school hygiene can only be taught satisfactorily in Training Colleges when all the subjects which are in a way connected with it are correlated and placed in the hands of one lecturer, thus avoiding repetition and utilising the time of students and lecturers to the greatest advantage.

There is at present in the Training Colleges a great danger of antagonism in the teaching of these subjects. Take breathing as an example. A student is taught the principles of breathing by the teachers of voice production, singing, phonetics, and physical education; and after he has striven hard to breathe well, though stultified by the different opinions of these instructors, he is told at his medical inspection that his poorness of breathing is accountable for his lack of stamina. If, however, he is fortunate enough to possess a little knowledge of the construction of the body, he is allowed

to teach his class to do that which he is unable to do himself. The Board of Education in a foot-note under the heading of Singing, state "Students should also receive instruction in proper methods of breathing. This instruction would properly be included in the course of physical training."

Do the teachers of physical education understand the delicate and refined breath control that is necessary for voice, whether for singing or speaking?

The speaking voice is of the greatest value to teachers, and can only be made to endure the hard work of the school by a careful attention to its production. The breathing that is usually taught in physical training is harmful rather than helpful to its well-being, and this applies, too, to the singing voice. The shouting of the commands in drill for the sake of securing a quick, jerky response from the pupil is very harmful to the voice. The singing of too florid and too operatic musical numbers cannot be good for young voices, nor the striving to reach extreme notes, either high or low. The following scheme is one that I have used with slight modifications ever since I was made a lecturer at the London Day Training Colleges, and I am now using it also at the Graystoke Place Training College; and it has the advantage of having been tried practically, so that it is practical as well as theoretical. This scheme, too, will ensure for the teacher a controlled voice and a good physical sense which it will be observed are required by the Board of Education as well as the "health conscience"; for there are many more items which should be included under the heading of hygiene in other parts of the book of regulations for the Training of Teachers; these are so scattered about that it is more than difficult to find out exactly the real amount of scientific knowledge required by the Board of Education, for instance, speech and physical training appear under the heading "The Principles of Teaching" and general rules of voice-training under the heading "The Theory of Music."

HYGIENE FOR TEACHERS.

A co-ordination syllabus of physical education, school hygiene, and voice production.

Theory.—Anatomy, 20 per cent.; physiology, 20 per cent.

Practical.—School hygiene, 20 per cent.

Personal.—Physical education, 20 per cent.; voice production, 20 per cent.

Examiner to allow 20 per cent. for each section.

No theoretical knowledge that has not a special practical utility to be required.

THE SKELETON AND POSITION.

The erect position; the starting positions; school attitudes and school furniture.

Anatomy.—The skeleton and organs of locomotion.

Physiology.—Function of bone, cartilage, muscle and ligament.

School Hygiene.—School postures and remedies; school fittings; rickety bones.

Physical Education.—Spinal axis and curves; stability, leverage, movement, elasticity; general effects of exercise; position and balance exercises.

Voice.—Exercises for flexibility and position of body; vocal exercises; the "M" sound; the vocal apparatus; larynx, etc.; speech and song.

CHEST AND BREATHING.

Breathing for health and voice; chemistry of life; ventilation, space, light, warmth.

Anatomy.—Thorax, muscles and organs.

Physiology.—Amoeba; chemistry of life (oxidation metabolism); functions of heart and lungs; gases of blood and air; animal warmth.

School Hygiene.—Ventilation; space, light, warmth; anaemia; consumption.

Physical Education.—Local effect of exercise; effect on heart and lungs; heat and combustion; speed and breathing; breathlessness; stiffness; movement of limbs.

Voice.—Breathing muscles (extrinsic and intrinsic); kinds of breathing; breath control; shape of chest; resonance; vocal exercises; vowel sounds; pronunciation; tone.

ABDOMEN AND FOOD.

Digestion; food; stimulants; lacteals and lymphatics.

Anatomy.—Abdomen, muscles and organs; lymphatics.

Physiology.—Functions of digestive organs and lymphatics.

School Hygiene.—Food; milk, fat and nitrogenous food for the child; care of the teeth; dangers of stimulants—alcohol, tea; regular habits.

Physical Education.—Effect on digestion, lymphatics, excretion; repose—repair of animal machine; head and trunk movements.

Voice.—The abdominal press and its relationship to the articulatory apparatus; vocal exercises; consonant sounds; articulation.

NERVES AND WORK.

Education; exercise; work; play; sleep; growth; fatigue, mental and physical.

Anatomy.—Nervous system.

Physiology.—Function of nervous system.

School Hygiene.—Growth and fatigue; sleep and repair; changes after work and rest; short lessons.

Physical Education.—Educational effects; co-ordination; automatism; fatigue regulates work; speed, endurance, strength, violence.

Voice.—Co-ordination; automatism; reading; vocal fatigue, cause and treatment.

SPECIAL SENSES.

Care of eye, ear, nose, throat.

Anatomy.—Eye, ear, nose, throat.

Physiology.—Vision and accommodation; hearing and Eustachian tube; smell; taste; touch.

School Hygiene.—Eye strain and headache; spectacles, large work and distance of work; deafness, ear discharges and throat troubles; adenoids and nasal breathing.

Physical Education.—Training, habituation to work; progression; tables; commands; games as physical exercise.

Voice.—Reading and recitation; hygiene of throat.

SKIN AND CLEANLINESS.

Dirt and disease; germs; lice; ringworm; infectious diseases of children.

Anatomy.—Skin, hair, nails.

Physiology.—Function of skin; vitality of cell *v.* germs; role of leucocytes; toxins; food poisoning; vaccination; infection through wounds.

School Hygiene.—Clothing; chill and chilbains; detection and prevention of disease; incubation period and period of infection.

Physical Education: Voice.—Hygiene effects; prevention of disease.

Each section forms a full syllabus for the work of one term, one hour a week being allowed for the subject. The ground can be successfully covered if the lecturer is fortunate enough to get such a hearty co-operation as is so ungrudgingly given by the Principals of the London Day and Gray-stoke Place Training Colleges.

REVIEWS.

The English Grammar Schools to 1660, by Professor Foster Watson. (Cambridge University Press.)

The student of educational practice in reviewing the records of the past may gather some of his most valuable material from the text-books in common use in the schools at various periods of their history. These works have hitherto received but little attention and an exhaustive account of them has still to be written, but Professor Foster Watson's book, *The English Grammar Schools to 1660*, is a marked recognition of the importance of the study of first-hand sources of this description. The aim of the book—to quote from the preface—is “to present an account of the teaching in the English Grammar Schools from the time of the Invention of Printing up to 1660,” the year of the English Restoration, from which period Mr. Watson dates the rise of modern practices in the schools. The method adopted is a careful examination of the school books and statutes of numerous grammar schools, as well as of the writings of contemporary educationalists bearing upon this particular subject, and a valuable feature of the book is the introduction of passages from original sources in support of the author's conclusions on the varied questions with which he deals.

Work of a similar type has already been done by Mr. Leach in his well-known *English Schools at the Reformation*, but Mr. Watson's book is more definitely concerned with the evolution of curricula and the internal economy of the schools, and it supplies a long-felt want in its constant appeal to the evidence of the text-book, a matter of subordinate importance in the afore-mentioned work.

The unifying principle running through the great diversity of subject that is presented to the reader in the book under consideration is the author's unmistakable conviction that the development of the grammar schools cannot be satisfactorily studied apart from the history of their times, and this idea he works out when he traces the story of the connection between the school and the church and follows up the evolution of the curriculum as the Renaissance movement spread in England, as Protestantism grew and Puritanism took its rise.

The opening chapters deal with the question of the connection of the grammar schools with the church. From Mr. Leach's *English Schools at the Reformation* may be obtained a clear idea of the various types of schools and their relations to the bodies that respectively controlled them. Mr. Watson

shows that the tie between the church and educational institutions both before and after the Reformation was a very close one, and he claims that "complete severance from ecclesiastical oversight and support of some kind from the church was only slowly effected," and that in the period 1550 to 1560 "no school was outside of ecclesiastical influence." The place of the bible, the catechism and the primers and other religious school books is clearly explained, data being taken from statutes, from which sources the student may also learn what religious qualifications were demanded of the masters and what practices and observances were from time to time enjoined in the schools.

In dealing with curriculum the author takes the period of the Northern Renaissance as a dividing line in the history of the schools and draws a contrast between educational practices before and after that time. The position of elementary instruction is briefly explained, and passages are quoted from school statutes to show what was the attitude of the grammar schools towards these subjects. The account of the old A B C books and the Horn-books is interesting, while the Song-Schools and the teaching of music receive considerable attention. The main part of the book, however, is devoted to the consideration of the relative positions of the subjects of the Trivium and Quadrivium at different periods, and attention is drawn to the differentiation of the subject of study as time advanced and to the gradual emergence of "Grammar" as the first in importance. A number of chapters are devoted to an examination of the content of this term in teaching and a full description is given of the "plethora of grammars" that made their appearance before the authorized grammar book of royal proclamation was finally established in the schools. The history of Lily's Latin Grammar is frequently a matter of confusion, and a chapter is given to an explanation of how this famous book developed; it is interesting to note that its original form was a matter of dispute even at the time of its inception, as is evident from two conflicting letters quoted by Mr. Watson. That the authorized Latin grammar was a compilation is set forth in a letter by a certain Thomas Hayne, a master of Merchant Taylors' School, who was himself responsible for one of the numerous grammar books of the period. As the subject of grammar began to grow in importance, one of the burning questions of the day was how to adjust the differences between the pedantic schoolmaster whose stock-in-trade was grammar (in its narrowest meaning) and the teacher who, filled with the more truly humanist spirit, urged the claims of the classical writers themselves. In the story of the "Grammar War," methods of the class-room

are to the fore, and the reader is confronted with all the problems of the theme, the declamation and the verses of the old classical education as it developed in the grammar schools.

The subject of the Colloquies is an instructive one; it is easy to overlook the fact that in the middle ages and later, Latin was really a subject of practical use, and the modern teacher who is an advocate of conversational methods in Latin, may find many suggestions in these early school books, which were intended to give a training in the art of speaking the language. It is in this connection, and also in dealing with the subject of the school-play, that Mr. Watson argues that the grammar-school curriculum (with the notable exception of music) was in close touch with the national life, and that it gave the kind of education needed at that particular time, and this he urges despite the many protests of educational thinkers who decry the bad methods of teaching and the narrow outlook of the schools.

It is to be regretted that this idea is not more fully worked out in the concluding chapter, which is a recapitulation of the main tendencies in the history of the development of the grammar schools. It would, moreover, be an advantage to the reader to find in this chapter a brief summary of the chief features in the evolution of classical teaching as presented at considerable length in the preceding chapters.

It is unfortunate that in a few instances a slight awkwardness of expression detracts from the attention of the reader. The following passages may be quoted:—"It is a significant fact that two of the names suggested as the author of this catechism wrote longer catechisms." "An Oxford well-known instance." "Pupils having acquired a sound knowledge of grammar, and having had, and still continuing, constant exercise in translation."

The book is both suggestive and instructive, and will be read with pleasure by all who are interested in the early history of secondary schools. S. E. S. R.

Principles of Logic by George Hayward Joyce, S.J., M.A.,
Professor of Logic, St. Mary's Hall, Stonyhurst.
(London, Longmans, Green & Co.)

Professor Joyce is to be congratulated on having produced an excellent introductory text-book on Logic. Its most characteristic features are clearness and brevity of expression, combined in a very unusual degree and with unusual success. The book is, of course, written from the neo-scholastic point of view; that is, Professor Joyce adds to the traditional scholastic exposition of judgments, concepts, syllogisms, and fallacies, a treatment of what is usually known as Induction. This is taken in two parts, the logical

doctrine of induction in chapter xiv., and the application of this to scientific method in chapters xviii.-xxv. This separation is characteristic. Logic has for its content "the conceptual representation of the real order," and "the method of science" deals with the real order itself. But, after all, is not the aim of the method of science to build up a conceptual representation of the real order? It really seems only a matter of terms whether the whole method shall be included under "induction" or not. It is, at any rate, recognized as falling within the province of logic when it is called "applied logic."

One of Professor Joyce's doctrines seems to me difficult to reconcile with his fundamental conception of logic. He holds that categorical propositions do not imply the existence of their subjects (p. 113). If this be so, then, as propositions are the material with which logic deals, how can we be sure that there is any real order behind the conceptual construction? Mr. Joyce reaches his position by a limitation which seems especially strange in a scholastic. "Now in the first place it is evident that if a thing possesses *actual existence* at all, it exists in this physical universe." And this means, apparently, that it is open to sense perception. On p. 142 we are told "In the real order . . . the singular alone exists. . . . Our intellect shows us universal natures . . . though *as universal* they exist in our mind alone." But do they "actually exist" in our mind? If so, surely it cannot be said that actual existence is necessarily physical. Mr. Joyce opposes strongly the formal conceptualist doctrine which would sever thought from reality, yet it seems to me that his doctrine of the non-existential import of propositions can be made consistent only with such a doctrine.

The doctrine that "things in the real order are all singular" (p. 142), that consequently "nature is . . . an organization formed of things, which are complete in themselves, though related one to the other" is stated by Mr. Joyce to be the crucial difference between his school of thought and those who hold that "nature is an organism—a unit—of which individual things are but parts" (pp. 338-9). And yet it may be doubted if these are more than opposite ways of approaching the truth. If the "things" are "related," then, so far, they are not "complete in themselves," and they with their relations do form a whole; whether we call this whole an "organisation" or an "organism" matters little. After all, each term is merely figurative. And surely it cannot be denied that the explanations of science have, hitherto at any rate, been "provisional," directly we pass from the smaller matters of fact to the greater matters of explanation. Nor do I know in what historical sense Mr. Joyce can say of science that "every

step forward is a permanent acquisition of truth" (p. 339). Surely the path of science is strewn with the wrecks of discarded explanations.

Professor Joyce, I am sure, desires to be fair to those who disagree with him, but in my own case he has not altogether succeeded. The quotation given on p. 120, torn as it is from its context, gives quite a wrong impression, as will be evident to anyone who will read the whole section of my *Manual* from which it is abstracted. Few, I think, would gather from what Mr. Joyce says that the section advances substantially the same doctrine as his own, that it carefully distinguishes between *causa essendi* and *causa cognoscendi*, and that a few lines after the end of the extract quoted I say "Cause is confined to the explanation of events, whilst Ground refers to the foundation of all knowledge." And had Mr. Joyce read the half dozen intervening lines he would, I think, have seen that he is mistaken in identifying me with those who reduce all reality to thought. I could quite unreservedly accept Mr. Joyce's statement of the matter of logic, and I can but regret that my exposition of my views has not been clear enough to prevent so acute a thinker from misunderstanding them. I have always tried to express the view that logic deals with "reality as known, *i.e.*, as interpreted by thought" (*Manual* § 9). No doubt I hold "that in experience we find our ultimate *datum*; in other words, that in experience alone we are brought into contact with reality" (*Manual* § 141, vii.). But it never occurred to me that this would ever be taken to mean that thought constitutes the world in any other sense than that the thought of each one of us constitutes it as an object of knowledge to himself. These constructions differ in individuals, a point Dr. Bosanquet has well illustrated by likening them to "drawings in perspective of the same building from different points of view" (*Ess. of Log.*, p. 18). According to Professor Joyce's interpretation of Dr. Bosanquet's doctrine it is difficult to see what is "the same building" of which each person's construction is a representation.

J.W.

The Teaching of English, by H. C. Wyld. (London, John Murray.)

The Sounds of English, by Henry Sweet. (Oxford Clarendon Press.)

The Sounds of the French Language, by Dr. Passy. (Oxford Clarendon Press.)

Phonetic Transcriptions of English Prose, by Daniel Jones. (Oxford Clarendon Press.)

We are very hard driven nowadays by men whom you and I call specialists, but whom the gods, may be, call cranks.

One has to keep an eye on the sweet reasonableness of things and not forget the saving grace of humour. Here we have four admirable books written by men who can speak with authority on a subject that has been unusually fertile in producing quacks and their nostrums. There is no longer, therefore, any justification for misconceptions as to the elements of phonetics, and for this we owe our gratitude to the writers. The Clarendon Press has done wisely to persuade Dr. Sweet to do for English what M. Passy many years ago did for French sounds. They have done well, too, to get Messrs. Jones and Savory to translate M. Passy's book into English. Dr. Sweet's handbook, supplemented by M. Passy's, with its admirable diagrams and practical illustrations, should prove of the greatest assistance to all who want reliable help.

People vex themselves needlessly about the choice of phonetic symbols. Those used by Sweet—and Professor Wyld's differ from them very little—are very simple, and, for the most part, they coincide with those used by the International Phonetic Association. Teachers who are already used to the latter symbols in their application to French and German sounds will find in Mr. Jones' *Transcriptions of English Prose* a very complete set of illustrations. The other books also contain transcribed passages.

Professor Wyld is not content with an exposition of the elements of phonetics; he boldly, and, we think, admirably sets out to show how a training in these elements may be used to give to students in training the power of identifying and analysing the sounds they utter and the sounds they hear. He believes that the power is essential to any marked success in dealing with the social and local dialectal mispronunciations of teachers. The fact is that it comes as a shock to the ordinary man to find that he does not know with any degree of accuracy what sounds he is uttering or wherein they differ from those used by others.

Professor Wyld also deals with two other important problems: (1) that of the economy and use of the voice and (2) the problem of taste and expression in reading. What he has to say on the former of these questions is to the point, but it is too slight to be of much use. Indeed it is a matter for the voice specialist, provided that that person keeps off the domain of taste and expression. On the latter Professor Wyld says much that is excellent, much indeed that has seldom been said better, and people who are not in love with phonetic methods will find much with which they are in hearty agreement in his chapter on "Taste and Expression."

The writer had the privilege on several occasions of listening to readings by the late Canon Ainger. His exquisite taste, clear, gentle voice and insinuating power of sympathy were

a revelation of beauty of mind and sincerity of feeling. We rejoice to find that Professor Wyld has this type of excellence before him and that he dislikes, as Canon Ainger did, the artifices and eccentricities of the elocutionist. Tragedians have long discarded the mask; would that they might be persuaded to drop their masked utterance!

A. W. R.

The Writing of English, by P. J. Hartog (Oxford Clarendon Press.)

When discussions reach the nebulous stage and each speaker adds to the general confusion by exploiting his own particular irrelevance, we welcome the man who steps out, shuts us all up and tells us just where we stand. This is what Mr. Hartog has done for the subject that has vexed educational conferences for years.

Mr. Hartog's book has had a great reception, and chiefly, we think, because it clears the ground and gives us a fresh start on a road that makes for a definite goal. It is one of those books that commands success because it tells the best people what they think they have been on the point of arriving at themselves.

The plan of the book may be summed up in Mr. Hartog's words as follows:—

1. The English boy cannot write English.
2. The English boy is not taught to write English.
3. The French boy can write French.
4. The French boy can write French because he is taught how to write.
5. Historical reasons for the foregoing facts.
6. How the French boy is taught to write.
7. How the English boy may be taught to write.

The chapters on the "History of the Teaching of the Mother Tongue in France," and on the "Methods of Teaching Composition used in French Schools" are altogether admirable, but it is far from true to imagine that Mr. Hartog advocates a slavish adoption of French methods in England. He gives an interesting account of experimental work done by himself in Manchester both with children and working men, and we believe that this record is one of the most valuable things in the book. There are several examples of exercises worked both in France and England, and Mr. Hartog has spared himself no trouble in showing how his ideas may take practical form.

A. W. R.

The Teaching of Reading in Training Colleges, by Professor H. C. Wyld. (London, John Murray.)

From the seven chapters of this book we choose chapters six and seven for special comment; they deal with the management of the voice and in the expression in reading. Professor Wyld frankly says that resonance is a mystery, and he recommends careful breathing and the use of phonograph records. In his chapter on expression he admits that he has come to the hardest part of the subject. His practical suggestions in this chapter are these: that teachers should read more widely and should study the intonations and stresses of ordinary conversational English. In this last suggestion he hits on one of the best and the most unused methods for improving reading. But he does not seem to see that, by implication, he admits that children and young adults have all the material ready to their hand. Had the two chapters been run into one with this text, "Take conversational work and use that as your basis," a very valuable addition to our meagre books on reading would have been made. However, there are at least twenty other suggestions which may be made to a teacher of the subject, apart from exhortations, about breathing which generally mean nothing. There are tricks for improving resonance, for ensuring audibility, and distinctness; and there are rules (quite apart from any training in taste) the observance of which brings home to the listener the meaning of a passage.

The remainder of the book is a plea for the study of phonetics. Teachers on the whole will continue to look on phonetics (except as an aid to French or German) in the light of a luxury; and Professor Wyld would denounce anyone who would welcome phonetics for defectives only. Incidentally the author lays stress on the phonetic work done in Scotland: it is interesting to note that Dr. Sweet in his preface to "Sounds of English" makes the following remark:—"I have to express the hope that our educational authorities will be cautious in introducing phonetics and appointing teachers of it—and that they will profit by the experience of Scotland." A. B.

A Cycle of Nature Study, by M. M. Penstone. (London, Natural Society's Depository.)

A Plant Book for Schools, by Dr. Otto V. Darbishire. (London, A. and C. Black.)

It was one thing to ask for the introduction of Nature Study into schools; it was another matter to find teachers prepared for the instruction and suitable books that would serve as suggestive guides. The result was much unnatural

nature teaching, teaching that proved to be dull and ineffective. Some, notably Professor Miall, indicated the way through first-hand observation and love of fresh air and nature, but most of the literature, with carefully prepared blackboard diagrams and disconnected lessons, and the playing with coloured crayons, had a mischievous effect. We are finding the right way slowly and the two books under notice are indications of the change.

Miss Penstone as a practical teacher rightly declines to consider "scraps of nature" apart from the general setting: the plants, animals, and objects of nature are not specimens in the classroom but objects *in situ*, and, as one might expect, they are considered in their season. The fifty-two chapters are not to be begun at the beginning but at the chapter that agrees with the period of the year when lessons begin. Written for children under twelve years of age, it is a wise, inspiring and suggestive book, the breath of the fresh air is in the pages. Teachers who love nature will have their sympathies intensified by this work, and will have a guide that will tend to make the lessons real; they will be uncomfortable and feel a sense of failure unless the result is to get the young folk into the open.

"Come into the light of things:
And let Nature be your teaching."

We commend the book as an aid to the teacher's knowledge, not as a substitute for a teacher's own observations; in this Miss Penstone will agree.

Dr. Darbishire sets himself another task; he wishes to further systematize the general knowledge gained, he would be happy, we imagine, if those beginning the plan of studies he suggests had had the advantage of a general course such as Miss Penstone outlines. He insists upon the real object (as all good teachers will), its place in garden, hedge-row and field; then he skilfully outlines a scheme that develops systematic observations, and describes excellent methods for plant observation through the four seasons of the year. Classroom work comes rightly after outdoor work. The plant "in Nature," not the lonely, depressing, dying specimen that wearies the class from its vantage point of the teacher's desk, is his subject. The illustrations are excellent; but these are not to be copied, nor are they to replace personal observation; and, used as the author suggests, they will lead children to the "light of things."

We strongly advise all school teachers to obtain, read and utilize these admirable books. Happy would be the children of the nation if they could follow, and if they could be instructed rationally in the spirit and the subject-matter of these books.

K. N. T.

Physical Education and Hygiene, by W. P. Welpton.
(London, University Tutorial Series.)

School Hygiene and Laws of Health, by Dr. C. Porter.
(London, Longmans, Green & Co.)

Manual of School Hygiene, by Dr. E. W. Hope and Dr.
E. A. Browne. (London, Cambridge University
Press.)

The publication of these books is one of the many indications of the recognition of the value of exercise and health in the training of teachers. The address of Sir Lauder Brunton upon "Training Colleges and National Health" at the annual meeting of the Association in December, 1907, and the paper which Lieutenant Grenfell read at the recent annual meeting show that those responsible for the conduct of colleges are alive to the importance of the subject. The methods that must be followed to suitably impress and instruct students will only be real after many experiments; the danger is that any one system should receive official sanction. The difficulty is to decide between the values of knowledge and the inculcation and practice of suitable habits. The presidents of each of the years mentioned had this problem before them in their annual addresses. In the meantime everyone must be grateful for the views set forth in the books under notice by those who have given special attention to the subject.

Mr. Welpton's book, which has a most interesting and characteristic introduction consisting of a resumé of the history of physical education by Professor Welton, deals with the relation of school hygiene to the general education of the child and more particularly with its influence on physical education. Some chapters, as the author realises, are rather too technical for beginners and should be left over until the remainder of the book has been read. Emphasis throughout is laid on the importance of the *practice* of hygiene by the children, and surely this is the essential point of the whole matter, for no amount of teaching can produce that "health conscience" without which all school hygiene must prove comparatively ineffective.

Dr. Porter's work is based upon a series of lectures given by the author to the teachers acting under the Sheffield Education Committee and to the students of the Sheffield Training College. In it, each system of the body is treated in turn, the structure and functions of the organs composing it, how they are affected by school conditions and disease, and how they might be protected, being considered.

In addition, the book deals with the school building, and a special chapter has been added on "Medical Inspection of Schools and School Children."

The physiological treatment of the subject is very complete, being rendered especially helpful by the valuable hints given in each section on the bearing of the structure and functions of the organs on school life and work.

The manual of Dr. Hope and Dr. Browne is one of the Cambridge series for schools and training colleges, provides a very suitable introduction to the study of school hygiene. There are two main sections in the book: the first, dealing with the external conditions affecting the health of children in schools, written by E. W. Hope; the second, dealing with the management of the child as a growing and living creature, contributed by E. A. Browne. The authors insist on the importance of child study at first hand by the student and teacher, rather than on a theoretical knowledge of physiology.

Space does not permit of a suitable appreciative account of these three books. Each treats of school hygiene from a special standpoint and thus each merits a place in the students' or teachers' library. Each book contains frequent diagrams and illustrations, which serve to render the subject more real and interesting.

It would be helpful were a complete bibliography to be inserted into each book so as to give the student an opportunity of pursuing his studies in any branch of the subjects that might prove of special interest to him.

J. F. M.

Pestalozzi: An Account of his Life and Work, by H. Holman.
(London, Longmans, Green & Co.)

There is so much to be done in the way of making Pestalozzi better known in England, that the appearance of a new book upon the subject brings with it considerable expectations. The writer of the book under review tells us that he has made every effort "to set forth as clearly as possible what Pestalozzi thought, wrote and did," and that the "greatest success" of his volume is to lie in the fact "that it gives the fullest opportunity and greatest stimulus to the readers to do their own thinking and formulate their own conclusions." These stimulating prefatory words could not fail to fire the interest with which a past student of Pestalozzi's work like myself took up the book. Having read it and thought about it, I must plead guilty to some disappointing conclusions. Clearly my expectations were pitched too high and it is only fair to say that the author disavows any attempt to show Pestalozzi's standpoint in relation to the history of thought. If we want to know anything of his intellectual ancestry, we are told in a paragraph at the end of the book to compare his philosophical ideas with those of "Aristotle, Descartes,

Hobbes, Locke, Leibniz and Kant"! Yet, I imagine the book is intended to be something more than a popular account of Pestalozzi, such as an uncritical enthusiast would write. Regarding it therefore as a serious contribution to the study of its subject, we have a right, in these days of accurate scholarship, to expect the author to know what he is writing about at first hand, to be familiar with recent critical work relating to it, and to do all in his power to encourage the student to go to original sources.

As to the first point, there is a good deal of evidence that the book is not based upon a direct acquaintance with Pestalozzi's work, a fact which would matter less if pains had been taken to ensure the accuracy of the translations employed and to make certain that, in interpreting the translation, ideas foreign to the original were not introduced. The paraphrase of the fifth letter in "How Gertrude Teaches her Children" on pp. 187-8 contains good examples of error in both these directions. Apart from the use of the word "idea" for the concrete terms of the original, thereby departing from the point of view which Pestalozzi is urging upon his reader, we have the confusion that comes from the irregular use of "clear" for the *deutlich* of the text. Throughout the letters Pestalozzi maintains a distinction between the words *Deutlichkeit*, *Klarheit* and *Bestimmtheit*. It matters little which particular English words we use in rendering them, provided that we are consistent. It will only make his meaning unintelligible if we use the word "clear" sometimes for *deutlich* and sometimes for *klar*. Further, a mistranslation, such as is not uncommon in the current English version of the Gessner Letters, is repeated and the thread of the argument is destroyed. Compare, for example, the version for which Mr. Holman makes himself responsible, with the original:

The second source is the power of sense-impression which is intimately interwoven with the sensibility of our nature.

Die zweite Quelle ist die mit diesen Anschauungsvermögen allgemein verbundene Sinnlichkeit meiner Natur.

That which is in the English here called the "second source" has been already discussed by Pestalozzi as the first source. The first source of definite ideas, the *Anschauungsvermögen*, is the passive recipient side of the human mind and the second source is the responsive sensitive side. The translator has not caught this distinction.

Again, the paraphrase of the same letter is brought to a close by the sentence, "Growth is adaptation to environment." This is part of an outline of educational doctrine drawn from "How Gertrude Teaches." Of course Pestalozzi

never wrote or meant anything of the kind; the idea of adaptation to environment was, I believe, quite unknown to Pestalozzi. The paragraph which is summarised in this way has been quite misunderstood by the author. It formulates what has been called "The Law of Physical Nearness," an idea which underlies much of Pestalozzi's work—the Mother's Book for example—and which actually led him to reject History as a school subject.

It is either careless writing or a similar want of first hand knowledge of the subject that leads the author to put persons and projects into the first volume of Leonard and Gertrude that do not appear until the second and third. And though it is a small matter, the danger of writing at second hand is well illustrated by the closing sentence of the biographical chapters. "Nearly twenty years after his death, in a niche in the church wall above his grave, was placed a bust of him." Now the monument is not in a niche, it is not on the church wall and the bust is a basrelief on a circular plaque.

As to the second point, one had hoped that a new English writer on Pestalozzi would have made use of the most recent critical interpretations, but even Pestalozzian bibliography is a sealed book to him. The "Swansong" is assigned to the year 1826 (the date of its publication) and is said to be "full of sadness and despondency" "as would be expected." But two-thirds of the book has no note of sadness in it, for it was written at least thirteen years before it was published and was probably intended as a sort of complement to the Lenzburg Address, from which, by the way, the author quotes two or three times without telling us when or under what circumstances it was written. Indeed, Pestalozzi's literary work at Yverdon is entirely ignored.

And thirdly, if students are to be encouraged to think for themselves, ought they not to be helped by precise references? It is annoying to have long quotations vaguely referred to Raumer, Vulliemin, De Guimps, etc. But it is much worse to find that the citations from Pestalozzi himself are never precisely located. This is surely inexcusable.

Nevertheless there is abundant enthusiasm in the book. As a popular introduction to its subject, much may perhaps be forgiven in virtue of the writer's obvious sincerity. The book is well printed and contains several interesting illustrations. Mr. Holman had the advantage of access to Dr. Mayo's papers and one welcomes very heartily the account he has given of the connection of Pestalozzi with that family. Of course, his relations with England began earlier than the time when Dr. Mayo went over to Yverdon. It would have been interesting to learn something of the results of the appeal which he made to the British public in

1818, one of Pestalozzi's most sanguine years. An autograph letter in my possession, addressed to a daughter of J. P. Greaves, suggests that it was not altogether unsuccessful. At least he writes from Yverdun in 1823 asking Mrs. Gardiner to help him with another scheme for raising money.
J. A. G.

The Kindergarten in American Education, by Nina C. Vandewalker. (New York: The Macmillan Company.)

Mr. Henry W. Blake, Miss Susan Blow, and Principal Salmon have given brief accounts of the American kindergarten in works dealing with larger subjects, and there are probably many other brief accounts buried in old magazines, but Miss Vandewalker is, we believe, the first to write the history in detail. She has shown great patience and industry in the collection of facts and considerable skill in the arrangement of them. By following separately each line of development she has kept her narrative free from confusion and made reference easy. We heartily commend her book to everyone interested in the spread of Froebel's ideas.

The earliest English kindergarten was established by Mrs. Bertha Ronge in London in 1854, and the earliest American by her sister, Mrs. Carl Schurz, at Watertown, Wis., in 1855. For about fifteen years the new system made very little progress in either country. Now America has over 3,300 public and about 1,500 private kindergartens with over 330,000 pupils while we have no public and probably only a few hundred private kindergartens. It might therefore be inferred that after 1870 the movement became rapid in America and almost ceased with us.

But the inference would be false. The difference arises from a difference not in the appreciation of new ideas but in the circumstances of their application. America has no infant schools and children are as a rule admitted to the primary school too old for a method of training which begins with the baby. If, therefore, the kindergarten is established there it must be a separate institution. But when the ideas of Froebel first reached England, the country already had a complete system of infant schools, admitting children at the age of three and keeping them till they were seven. Several courses were therefore open. The infant school might have been transformed into a kindergarten; it might have been divided into two parts, the lower a kindergarten; or something of the spirit and methods of Froebel might have been introduced into it. The last, being most consonant to our national instincts, was the course adopted. It gave us better infant schools, but it prevented our having good kindergartens as a link in our chain of state-aided schools.

The difference in origin accounts for the difference in development. In America the kindergarten is a complete and independent entity, self-contained, and living for itself alone. In England (except for the few private establishments) it lives as a part of something else. The infant teacher employs the gifts and games and songs with her younger classes as an easy and pleasant introduction to the reading and writing and arithmetic of the older; the kindergarten employs them as the best means for exercising the self-activity of her little flock. The one is thinking of her school, the other of her children; the one is likely to attach most importance to the methods of Froebel, the other to his principles.
D. S.

Armstrong College, Newcastle-upon-Tyne. Department of Education. Papers. Second Series.

The "papers" furnish us with an interesting account of an experiment, a Training College Camp. For some years it has been the custom to conduct excursions to country districts in order that students may become acquainted with the methods and curricula of rural schools; satisfactory as the results of these expeditions have been, it was still felt by the Principal and his colleagues that something more was needed to guide students to right relations with their pupils, and to bring teacher and taught into closer contact with Nature than is possible in schools. It was suggested that a camp for boys, managed by students, might supply the need. Staff and students agree that the surmise was correct.

The way for the enterprise was prepared by permission from the Board of Education to substitute attendance in camp for attendance at school, and by the recognition of the students' work in camp as part of the regular school practice; the teachers and parents of the boys were apprised by means of circulars describing the plan, and giving the necessary directions as to outfit, expenses, etc.

One hundred and six boys drawn from 30 schools, aged from 12 to 16, went into camp. Six or seven shared a tent, two or more tents formed a squad. At 9:15 each morning the squads moved out of camp for lessons. The curriculum comprised history, geography, plane tabling, surveying, bird, plant and insect life, music, sketching, weather observation, knotting and first aid. The unifying idea was Northumbria, in which Warkworth, the scene of the camp, lies. Physical exercise and games were not neglected. Service was conducted in camp twice daily, and arrangements were made for attendance at Divine Worship on Sunday.

Twenty-four students availed themselves of the oppor-

tunity. Their duties were arduous, comprising teaching, orderly duties including night watches, and the superintendence of games. Each tent had its student, consequently a squad was accompanied by more than one teacher. No set lessons were given, but teachers joined with pupils in the search for knowledge, arrangements being made, if possible, that one of the teachers present should have special knowledge of the subject under consideration. In the afternoon the boys made notes of the work done in the morning, the students superintending them in the marquee, giving assistance when necessary, but encouraging original work. The students themselves received less supervision than under ordinary circumstances, but this was found to be no disadvantage as freedom encouraged a sense of responsibility; real help was afforded by the friendly criticism of one another which took place in the after supper hour.

The results of the camp on the boys were most satisfactory, as also the results on the students, with which the promoters of the scheme were most concerned. Students and staff assert that the experience was of unique value, they learned more about boys in that fortnight than ever before: the teaching practice was of more value: without the conventionalities of the class room, without text books, they were thrown on their own resources and forced to original work: moreover, many of them learned the real meaning of an *active* class, and how many are the limitations of a merely bookish learning. The Training College Staff found their knowledge of the capacities of their students increased.

Interesting suggestions are forthcoming. The ordinary classification by age was impossible, yet it was found that variation in the quality of the work done did not depend upon age or the ordinary school classification, suggesting greater latitude in classification when attacking "new knowledge stuff." No time was available for revision, yet no evil results accrued. The absence of text books was beneficial. Some lessons preparatory for camp were certainly required, as also some connection between work done in camp and in school.

Those of us who are confronted with the manifold difficulties in the efficient training of students are indeed indebted to the Newcastle Training College for this candid account. There is need of pioneer work such as this, and the demonstration of the possibility and efficacy of this method of bringing students into sympathetic intercourse with their pupils is no mean contribution to the solution of our problem.

K. L. J.

Longman's Practical Arithmetic, Pupils' Series, Books I.-VII., Teachers' Series, Books I.-VII., by W. Knowles, B.A., B.Sc., and H. E. Howard.

In addition to the co-ordination of arithmetic and geometry the main feature of these books is that they aim at developing intelligence rather than skill in computing. Questions in the form of problems are given from the very first and all processes are introduced early with small numbers.

This leads sometimes to results no doubt rather startling to old fashioned framers of curricula. For example, this question " $\frac{3}{4}$ of $40 + \frac{1}{4}$ of $44 = x$. What number does x stand for?" precedes the following: "Multiply 68 by 4." A decade ago the second question would undoubtedly have come before the first. But is it not, after all, the harder of the two?

As will be seen from these examples, easy fractions are introduced very early. As soon as the child has mastered the properties of the numbers 1 to 10 and can add and subtract, multiply and divide within these limits and can also answer easy questions on 10, 20 . . . 90, 100, he is given a large number of *practical* exercises on halves, quarters and thirds in which he manipulates paper squares, wooden splints, squared drawing paper. This leads up to questions such as "A rope is 9 yards long. If I cut off $\frac{1}{3}$ of it how many thirds are left? How many yards are left?"

Multiplication from its first introduction is commenced by the tens digits, in preparation for contracted methods later.

Another commendable hint is that "Children should be accustomed to the drawing of freehand sketches in which the measurements are inserted."

Easy decimals are introduced in Book III. at about 9 or 10 years old and early indications given of a possible decimalisation of our British coinage with £1 and one florin as units.

Schemes are suggested for using the books in schools differing in staff and equipment. In a well-staffed town boys' school the number of the book corresponds with the standard, Book III. for Standard III. and so on.

Throughout the teachers' series great attention to detail is shown. For example, in speaking of a drawing "the figure should be lettered, *neat printed block capitals being used*." The frequent full notes of typical lessons are also very valuable. Indeed the only danger which would seem to attend the introduction of these books is that the teacher, finding a careful and detailed course of instruction laid down for him in the Teachers' Series and all the necessary examples in the Pupils' Series, may cease to prepare any lessons and depend wholly on these primers.

G. H. T.

Reviews of

The Administration of Public Education in the United States, by S. T. Dutton and D. Snedden. (London: Macmillan & Company.)

Puerorum Liber Aureus, by T. S. Foster. (London: A. & C. Black.)

Principles of Secondary Education (Vols. 1 and 2), by Prof. De Garmo.

Special Method in Arithmetic, by C. A. McMurry.

A Modern Arithmetic, by H. S. Jones.

Practical Arithmetic and Mensuration, by F. Castle.

A New Algebra, by S. Barnard and J. M. Child.

(The above five books published by Macmillan & Co.)

are held over and will appear in the Autumn number.

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